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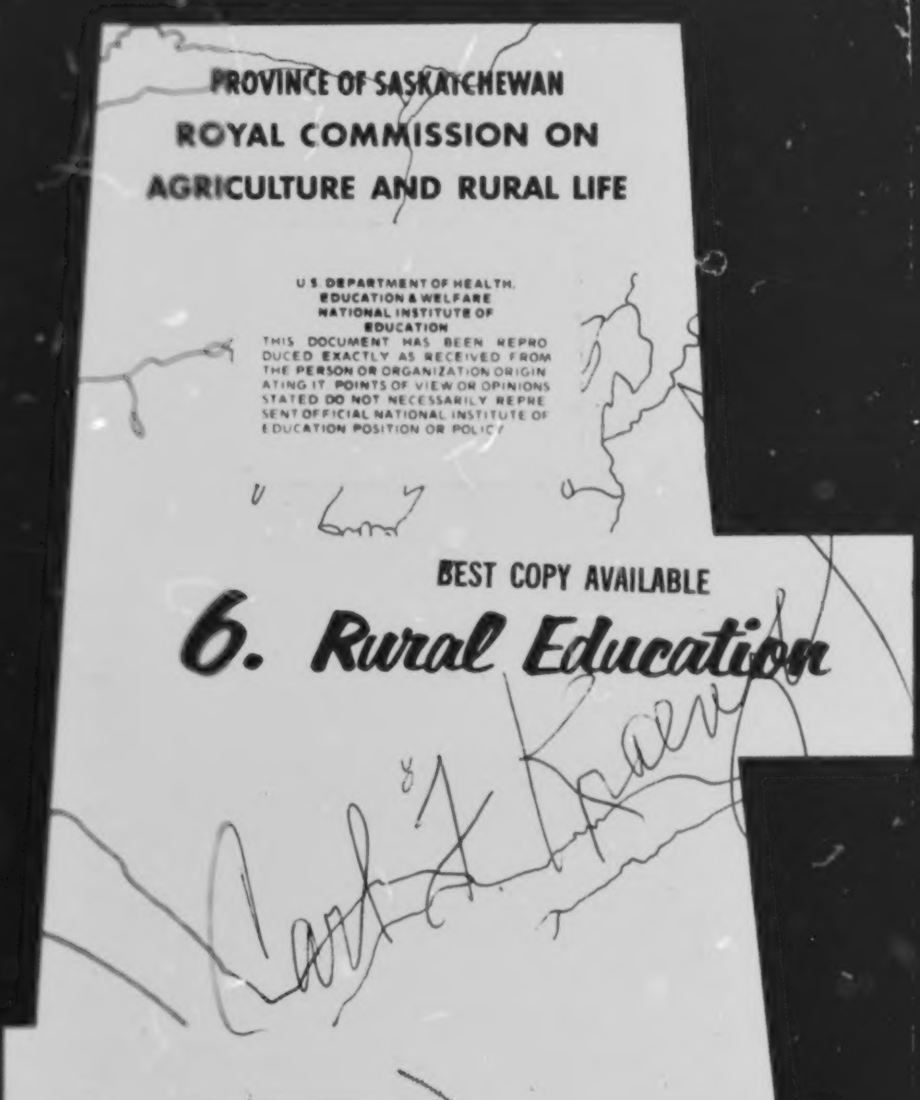
ABSTRACT

Changes in the structure and operation of Saskatchewan's rural education system were examined. The aim was to find ways to equalize educational opportunity and raise the level of education. Data were obtained from: (1) public opinion derived from community forums, communities and organizations' briefs, and hearings at which representatives of communities and organizations testified; and (2) 4 separate questionnaires sent to secretary-treasurers of larger school units, superintendents, local school district boards, and teachers. This report discusses the: (1) problems in education as seen by the province's rural people; (2) environmental change and rural education; (3) regrouping of educational facilities; (4) larger units of administration; (5) educational finance, both expenditures and revenues; (6) staffing Saskatchewan schools; (7) retention of pupils; (8) continuation to higher education; (9) vocational education; and (10) continuing education for adults. Also given are a summary of the public's solutions to the educational problems and some recommendations by the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life. (NQ)



PROVINCE OF SASKATCHEWAN

ROYAL COMMISSION ON AGRICULTURE AND RURAL LIFE

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6. Rural Education

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REPORT NO. 6

Rural Education

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Submitted to the

GOVERNMENT OF SASKATCHEWAN

1956

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TERMS OF REFERENCE

Order in Council 2442/52 Regina, Friday, October 31, 1952.

The Executive Council has had under consideration a report from the President of the Council, dated October 31, 1952, stating that by The Public Inquiries Act, being chapter 15 of the Revised Statutes of Saskatchewan, 1940, it is enacted that the Lieutenant Governor in Council, when he deems it expedient to cause inquiry to be made into and concerning any matter within the jurisdiction of the Legislature and connected with the good government of Saskatchewan, or the conduct of the public business thereof, or which is, in his opinion of sufficient public importance, may appoint one or more commissioners to make such inquiry and to report thereon.

The Minister further states that by section 5 of the said The Public Inquiries Act, it is provided that the Commissioners, if thereunto authorized by the Lieutenant Governor in Council, may engage the services of such accountants, engineers, technical advisers, or other experts, clerks, reporters and assistants as they deem necessary or advisable, and also the services of counsel to aid and assist the commissioners in the inquiry.

The Minister further states that on the 7th day of March, 1952, the following Resolution was submitted on the motion of the Minister to and passed by the Legislative Assembly:

"That this Assembly, recognizing

(a) that in recent years the rapid increase of farm mechanization and the widespread adoption of new agricultural methods have resulted in basic changes in rural life and the farm economy of Saskatchewan, and

(b) that these economic trends are creating new rural social problems as well as adversely affecting the ability of our young people to become established in the agricultural industry, and

(c) that these trends also offer an opportunity for further extending the amenities of rural life,

agrees it is advisable that the Provincial Government should appoint a Royal Commission to investigate and make recommendations regarding the requirements for the maintenance of a sound farm economy and the improvement of social conditions and amenities in rural Saskatchewan, and recommends that such Commission, in its inquiry and recommendations, have particular reference to:

(1) the problems involved in present day trends in agricultural production, land use and farm costs;

(2) the need for farm capital and credit;

(3) the further adaption of social services and educational facilities to meet changing rural conditions; and

(4) the further development of rural transportation, communication and community services."

Upon consideration of the foregoing report and on the recommendation of the President of the Council, the Executive Council advises that a Commission do issue to William Bernard Baker, Professor; Henry Llewellyn Fowler, Secretary; both of the City of Saskatoon; Joseph Lee Phelps, Farmer, of the Postal District of Wilkie; Charles William Gibbings, Farmer, of the Postal District of Rosetown; Nancy Adams, Housewife, of the Postal District of Ethelton; and Tabaldo Henry Bourassa, Merchant, of the Town of LaFleche; all in the Province of Saskatchewan, of which Commission the said William Bernard Baker shall be Chairman, for the purpose of having an exhaustive study and inquiry made into and concerning and to make recommendations regarding the requirements for the maintenance of a sound farm economy and the improvement of social conditions and amenities in rural Saskatchewan, having particular reference in their inquiry and recommendations to:

(1) the problems involved in present day trends in agricultural production, land use and farm costs;

(2) the need for farm capital and credit;

(3) the further adaption of social services and educational facilities to meet changing rural conditions; and

(4) the further development of rural transportation, communication and community services;

and for these purposes to consult with all organizations and individuals interested and to accept for consideration, articles, submissions or other representations made by or on behalf of interested persons or organizations, and to include in their considerations any questions which they may hold to be relevant.

The Executive Council further advises that in addition to the powers conferred upon commissioners by the said The Public Inquiries Act, the said commissioners be authorized to engage the services of such accountants, engineers, technical advisers, or other experts, clerks, reporters and assistants as they deem necessary or advisable and also the services of counsel to aid and assist the Commissioners in the inquiry.

The Executive Council further advises that the expenditures of the Commissioners for the inquiry and report be limited to the amounts approved by the Legislature for this purpose.

(Signed) J. M. Telford,
Clerk Executive Council

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

ROYAL COMMISSION ON AGRICULTURE AND RURAL LIFE

Regina, Saskatchewan,
July 20, 1956.

The Honourable T. C. Douglas,
Premier of Saskatchewan.

Dear Sir:

We have the honour to transmit herewith a report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life on Rural Education in Saskatchewan. This is the sixth report of the Commission pursuant to the Order in Council of His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor in Council dated the 31st day of October, 1952, O.C. 2442/52.

This report provides a clear demonstration of the wisdom of establishing Larger Units of School Administration in adapting to changing rural conditions. The difficult process of centralizing our rural schools is just beginning. This and other adjustments outlined in your Commission's report will be necessary to the realization of acceptable levels of rural education in the future.

Respectfully submitted,

Nancy Adams T. H. Bourassa

Mrs. Nancy Adams W. B. Baker, Chairman T. H. Bourassa

Chas. W. Gibbings J. L. Phelps

H. L. Fowler Chas. W. Gibbings J. L. Pheips

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The demands of the modern world have placed a premium on education. Tremendous scientific and technological developments and increased knowledge of the application of science to human welfare require that people be equipped to mould these advances into their own lives. The development of modern transportation and mass communication media—the press, radio, films, and television—have made the world small in time and space. Events in remote centers of the world are communicated as readily as events at home. There is often, however, a vast gulf between communication and comprehension. This gulf between events, knowledge, and the present level of technology on the one hand and the people's ability to comprehend them on the other must be bridged by educational background.

Developments in world affairs have also heightened the importance of education. No part of the world is self-sufficient or isolated. The economic interdependence of the world has long been recognized, and today the development of atomic weapons is forcing the adoption of a "one world" concept for the security and survival of nations. National and international policies, however, depend on the people's comprehension of events and world affairs. The interdependence of peoples in the modern world thus makes increased educational background not only important for progress but essential for survival.

In much of the world the problem of basic education for vast numbers of people remains to be conquered. In the words of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, people "must be taught to read and write, how to fight disease, how to use machines and implements, and generally how to raise their standard of living by increasing their country's resources."[1]

In countries where agriculture and industry are more developed, the problem is not to overcome illiteracy and superstition but perhaps a more difficult undertaking—to equalize educational opportunity for all and to raise standards of education to a level consonant with the demands of modern society. These are indeed the tasks that face the province of Saskatchewan. Since the rural areas of the province suffer most critically from inequalities in educational opportunity, the problem of first importance is to equalize educational opportunity for rural youth and to raise the level of rural education.

Since education in rural Saskatchewan functions within the rural social system, the basic characteristics of agriculture and population have vital implications for the provision of rural education. Rural population in Saskatchewan has always been sparse, but mechanization of agriculture and increases in the average size of farm in recent years have been associated with a declining agricultural population. These changes in the organization of agricultural production and in agricultural technology have entailed changes in the rural community. Not only are farm people moving to urban centers to live, but those who remain on the farms are associating in larger communities than formerly.

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[1] *UNESCO, A World Programme*, United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris, 1948, p. 20.

These economic and social changes have necessitated far-reaching changes in the organization and administration of education. Small school districts of fifteen to twenty sections could not provide education under the circumstances of increased farm sizes and declining population. Individual school district boards were no longer able to operate effectively within their own neighbourhoods.

In order to achieve an adequate student population for modern education, school facilities have been regrouped on the basis of larger attendance areas, and transportation of students to centralized schools instituted. Administration of education has also been reorganized over larger areas roughly in accord with current patterns of rural community association. These large administrative units have tended to provide uniform administration over large areas and to eliminate inequalities in the financing of education.

The purpose of this report is to examine these changes in the structure and operation of the system of rural education in Saskatchewan today. The organization, administration, and resources of education are analysed in the light of economic and social conditions in the rural community with a view to finding ways to equalize educational opportunity and raise the level of education.

Scope of This Report

Although this study represents a comprehensive assessment of rural education, its limitations should be recognized. It is extremely difficult to define clearly all the roots of educational change. Obviously the real test of the soundness of an educational system is what happens to the pupils. This kind of measurement was possible with respect to some aspects of the school program, but by no means all. Thorough evaluation, even under highly favourable conditions, is a difficult and time-consuming process involving on-the-scene investigation. The impossibility of utilizing that approach made it necessary to confine this study to certain conditions and changes which, by common agreement, are indicative of educational progress.

As a consequence, the Commission has confined its study of rural education mainly to the means by which education is provided—the organization of education, the administration of education, the resources in personnel, and the financial resources for education. In addition, several important problems affecting curriculum are discussed, but in the main the emphasis is on how rural education is provided. In short, this report is a study of education as part of a rural social system.

The content of education is thus not the focus of this report. The Commission was able to treat curriculum and standards of education only indirectly or in limited ways. These questions are treated in so far as they affect or are affected by the organization, administration, and resources of education. In several special connections, however, curriculum and standards of education are directly treated—with respect to educational trends, retention of students, vocational education, and adult education.

Similarly, despite its importance, the question of federal financing of education is excluded from this report. Fundamental to any consideration of education within a province is the level of education in the nation as a whole. In focusing on rural education within the province, the Commission does not ignore the importance of achieving equality of educational opportunity across Canada. Variations in wealth and population have always existed among the provinces and created inequities in educational systems. The unstable economy of the prairie provinces, dependent mainly on wheat production, has placed these provinces at a particular disadvantage in financing education. Saskatchewan, moreover, has for nearly twenty years reared and educated its young people and then exported a large proportion of them, mainly to other provinces. It has thus assumed costs from which it has derived incomplete social or economic benefit. The case for a national minimum standard of education is incontrovertible. All Canadian children, no matter where they live, are entitled to certain educational opportunities. The increased costs of modern education, the need for trained personnel of all kinds, and the mobility of the population make essential some federal underwriting of the costs of education.

The Canadian School Trustees' Association has recently issued an exhaustive study of school finance in Canada with recommendations to solve the problem of financing the increasing costs of education throughout the nation.[2] This Commission believes that the work of the School Finance Research Committee, directed by Dr. M. E. LaZerte, is fundamental to an attack on problems of education within the provinces.

Other exclusions from this report are schooling in the Northern Area of Administration, the School for the Deaf, and government aided schools. The Commission has confined its analysis of the school system largely to schools operating under the School Act, the Secondary Education Act, and the Vocational Education Act. Also, no thorough analysis of the University of Saskatchewan and its many colleges and services has been undertaken.

Although much ground on the provision of education has been covered in this report, the Commission would like to see a thorough treatment of curriculum, facilities, and standards of education in general. Such a study, if undertaken, would be invaluable in helping to adjust the content of education to modern rural life. Furthermore, the report of the Canadian School Trustees' Association on school finance in Canada should be read as background to this report.

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[2] *School Finance in Canada*, Canadian School Trustees' Association, School Finance Research Committee, Dr. M. E. LaZerte, Research Director, Edmonton, 1955.

Plan of This Report

The report opens in Chapter II with a statement of the problems of rural education as seen by rural people in the province. In their communities and through their organizations, rural people voiced their thinking on recent developments in education and the main problems in education that affect rural communities.

Chapter III is a review of the changing rural environment and its effect on rural education. The historical development of rural education is briefly reviewed. Environmental changes and their impact on education are analysed. Finally, educational adjustments affecting curriculum and standards of education, personnel, facilities, organization of education, and financing of education are examined as a prelude to the analysis of current educational problems.

Chapter IV describes the regrouping of school facilities that has occurred in the province, presents a deeper analysis of regrouping in one area of the province, and reviews the factors associated with centralization of school facilities. Finally, the future development of centralization is discussed.

Chapter V is a discussion of larger units of school administration—the establishment of larger units, their financing and administration, and proposals to integrate larger school units with other local agencies.

Chapter VI is an analysis of the financing of education, both expenditures and revenues.

Chapter VII is concerned with staffing Saskatchewan schools. Here are discussed the shortage of qualified teachers in Saskatchewan, factors contributing to the teacher shortage, effects of the teacher shortage, and measures to increase the supply of qualified teachers.

Chapter VIII analyses student retention in high school grades, considers some of the implications of low retention, and suggests methods of increasing the retentive power of the schools.

Chapter IX considers some of the aspects of higher education as they relate to the supply of and demand for professional and sub-professional personnel in the province.

Chapter X describes and evaluates existing programs of vocational education, examines the need and demand for expansion of vocational courses, and surveys the problems and requirements attending such expansion.

Continuing education for adults is the subject of Chapter XI. Purposes and programs of both governmental and non - governmental groups are described and evaluated and suggestions are made for the development of a better integrated and more coherent approach to adult education.

Chapter XII summarizes the public's concept of solutions to the problems of education.

Chapter XIII sets forth the Commission's conclusions derived from its analysis and Chapter XIV contains the Commission's recommendations on the problems of rural education.

Methods of Analysis

In its analysis of the problems of rural education, the Commission relied on various sources of information. Its starting point was the vast body of public opinion derived from community forums, briefs of communities and organizations, and hearings at which representatives of communities and organizations testified. From this information the Commission obtained the point of view of rural people, provincial organizations, educators, and professional organizations in the field of education.

Four separate questionnaires were used in this study. One went to all secretary-treasurers of larger school units and another to all unit superintendents. The main objective of these questionnaires was to secure information on larger school units with respect to organization, operation, finance, parent participation, teacher supply, student drop-outs, and co-ordination. Out of 55 schedules mailed to each group, the secretary-treasurers returned 52 and the superintendents 53. Thus, almost perfect coverage was achieved.

A third questionnaire was mailed to local school district boards to gain direct information on the attitudes and opinions of rural ratepayers with respect to the larger units and their administrative policies and on their receptiveness to suggested changes. A sample of 218 boards was selected, based on length of time in units, on geographic location, and on open-closed status of schools. Within these limits, selection was random. Eighty-three schedules were returned. Because of the low rate of response, the use of the data was restricted.

The fourth questionnaire in this study area went to teachers. Teacher supply is an important part of this study, and an attempt was made to trace the careers of teachers who graduated in the years 1948-1950. A total of 1,261 tracer cards were mailed and 786 were returned, permitting the mailing of an equal number of questionnaires. The schedules sought information on the careers of graduates, the causes of changes in location and of leaving the profession, and other pertinent questions. A total of 485 schedules were returned for analysis.

A further attempt was made to determine the status of the total group, and 982 responses were received.

The Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation issued all tracers and questionnaires and also performed the analysis in close consultation with Commission staff.

Dominion Bureau of Statistics census data, reports and records of the Department of Education and other departments of the Provincial Government, reports of previous commissions and committees affecting education, statutes, and general materials on education were extensively used. A description of the analysis of the statistical data, together with definitions of the terms used, is presented in the foreword to Appendix I.

Acknowledgments

The Commission is deeply indebted to many agencies and individuals for their constructive assistance in the preparation of this report. Farm people who met in communities throughout the province and leaders of provincial organizations provided an essential source of information. Boards, secretaries, and superintendents of larger school units and a number of school district boards co-operated in the provision of data. Consultants in the Department of Education and the College of Education of the University of Saskatchewan and the principals and staffs of the Teachers Colleges at Saskatoon and Moose Jaw were extremely helpful. The Commission gratefully acknowledges the contribution of the Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation and H. Trout, Director of Field Services for the Federation, for the compilation and analysis of data on the supply of teachers provided by the many teachers who co-operated in a questionnaire survey. Special recognition is also due to A. J. Wirick for his assistance in the field of adult education and to F. J. Dixon and H. C. Flegg for their preparation of materials on the financing of education. Finally, the Commission acknowledges the invaluable contribution of M. Brownstone, Director of Research of the Secretariat, and of W. Hamilton, research analyst.

CHAPTER II

Problems In Education: The Public's Concept

In its extensive contact with the Saskatchewan public, the Commission was frequently reminded of the concepts of education held by both rural and urban people. Problems of equality of educational opportunity and realization of improved standards of education were expressed on all sides. The public's concept of educational problems, primarily in the rural setting, will be reviewed in this chapter. Public proposals for the solution of these problems are presented in Chapter XII.

Concern for education in modern Saskatchewan was voiced by virtually all communities, organizations, and agencies that made submissions to the Commission. Eighty per cent of the community briefs, 70 per cent of the briefs of colleges and departments of the University, 50 per cent of the briefs of provincial organizations, and 40 per cent of the briefs of government departments dealt with some phase of education. In all, 233 of 406 documents presented to the Commission considered the problems of education.

The *Provincial Council of Women of Saskatchewan* expressed the feeling of many groups in stating that educational matters "are most important, as the children of today, whether from rural or urban areas, will be the citizens responsible for the affairs of the municipality and the province of tomorrow, and, only as they have knowledge and vision of the past will they enable Saskatchewan to hold its place of honour among the provinces." Similarly, one individual stated that "education is the most important problem of all, for with the proper education, we will eventually be able to find a satisfactory solution to all our problems—while without it we will lose all we have." The *Staff of Notre Dame College and the United Church Minister of Wilcox* submitted that the democratic ideal requires that Saskatchewan strive to assure equal and full opportunity for the fullest measure of education in the liberal arts for everyone.

Ample provision of educational opportunity was considered particularly important because of the need for professionally trained people for development of the natural resources and for service of the human resources of the province. This need was most explicitly outlined by professional organizations, provincial organizations, and the departments of the Government and the University. Trained scientific personnel have been sought abroad, since Canada-wide advertisements yielded few applicants. The *Department of Geology of the University's College of Engineering* pointed out that "at the present time we are not able to keep pace with the demand for trained men." The *Saskatchewan Veterinary Association* described the shortage of professionally trained persons in its field to meet the growing needs of the economy. It claimed that "there are many large areas that have no local veterinary service and the present number of veterinarians is entirely inadequate to fill the needs of our livestock producers." The *Saskatchewan Library Association*, indicating how a shortage of personnel hampers development of libraries, stated that assistance being offered through government scholarships was not even being claimed. Rural people also were critical of the shortage of trained personnel, particularly of qualified teachers.

Against this backdrop of the need for equality of educational opportunity, a high level of educational attainment, and present needs for increased numbers of professionally trained personnel, the Commission was reminded of the many problems deterring progress in the provision of education.

Main Problems in Education

Educational problems, particularly in the rural communities, are seen within the framework of changing economic and social conditions. The *Agricultural Conservation and Improvement District Board of Agricultural Representative District No. 9* (Swift Current) described the establishment of rural school districts following settlement and the maladjustment between small school districts and farms which "grew larger in size and fewer in number." *Lashburn* commented that these trends have reduced the number of families living in each rural district and gave an example of a rural district that "had 26 families resident in 1925 and now has only 18 families to be served by its school." *Tisdale* directed attention to the drop in attendance in rural schools which has made it "harder for those remaining to pay for the teacher and facilities."

In addition to the increase in the size of farms, *Broderick* commented that "families have become smaller and many people farm from town. This resulted in a comparatively small rural population and forced many schools to close and others to operate with a low enrolment." Often, according to the *Agricultural Conservation and Improvement District Board* in the Swift Current region, "a rural school served only four or five students. Frequently, in the more or less isolated communities, it became almost impossible to hire teachers at the low salaries offered for their services."

Davidson referred to the way in which these educational problems, in turn, affected other phases of living. "The inability to secure reasonably good school facilities was the reason for a number of families leaving the farm and establishing temporary or permanent homes in urban centers. Such a movement contributed to the deterioration of social life in the rural area." *Leroy* observed the effects of the general mobility of population on the town schools. "In the past 12 years Leroy school has doubled in size—from 3 rooms to 6, and from 85 students to 180."

Although the consequences of change in the rural scene were seen to create many problems in assuring adequate educational opportunity for all, the main problem of concern to rural people was the current shortage of qualified teachers. An analysis of 63 community briefs dealing with education is presented in Table 1; 86 per cent of the briefs mentioned the teacher shortage. The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association*, reporting responses from larger unit boards,

TABLE 1. NUMBER OF COMMUNITY BRIEFS DEALING WITH VARIOUS PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION

Problem	Number of Briefs	Per Cent
Teacher shortage	54	86
Inadequate physical facilities	32	51
Curriculum inadequacies	15	24
Financing problems	9	14
Population movement and problems arising out of adjustments	7	11
Transportation of children	5	8
Poor parent participation	3	5
Number of briefs analysed	63	

district boards, and some individual trustees, indicated a similar listing of problems with the teacher shortage and inadequate physical facilities far outweighing all others.

Teacher Shortage

In 1953, numerous communities informed the Commission of the high proportion of school rooms operated with study supervisors or teachers who had less than the minimum qualifications for certification. In addition, many married women were serving in the profession who would have withdrawn from teaching if the supply of teachers had been adequate. (The supply of teachers has altered considerably since the briefs were presented to the Commission.)

The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* informed the Commission that, in the opinion of a sample of unit and district boards and individual trustees, inadequate salaries were the main reason for the shortage of teachers. This and other factors, listed in order of frequency of mention, were as follows:

1) Low salaries,
2) Opportunities in other fields,
3) Working and living conditions,
4) Rural isolation,
5) Too many small schools,
6) High cost of training,
7) Attitude of public,
8) Low level of retention in high school.

While opinion was unanimous that there is a shortage of teachers, the shortage was interpreted by some as related to the existence of too many schools. The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* commented:

> "We believe that the situation is not so much that we have an inadequate supply but that we are endeavoring to operate too many classrooms and, therefore, demand a supply of teachers disproportionate to our school enrolment and total population. The

> solution would seem, then, to reduce the demand for teachers rather than trying to create a supply beyond that which can be reasonably expected."

Educational authorities noted that at present there are hundreds of rural schools each with an enrolment of fewer than ten pupils and submitted that the "use of a qualified teacher for ten or fewer pupils is an uneconomical and professionally poor use of the teachers' services. This spreading of the teacher supply over many schools of small enrolment is one of the chief reasons for the teacher shortage."

Some explained the teacher shortage in terms of the present imbalance in population between the "teenage" group and the elementary school age group, stating that teachers to serve the pupils born in the postwar period of a high birthrate had to be drawn from the population born in the 1930's, when the birthrate was low. The problem of assuring an adequate supply of teachers, as *Craik* observed, "is due in part . . . to the rapid expansion of other government services which have been in direct competition with the teaching profession for personnel." *Parkman* stated that the "trend to industry and shortage of man and woman power drained off the potential supply of teacher material."

Teacher Salaries. Although the general public and educational authorities stated that the shortage of teachers may be caused by the maintenance of too many schools for the population or by limited population of the teacher training age, the most commonly held opinion was that salaries are inadequate. *Sturgis* claimed that "the shortage of teachers is due to the fact that the salaries are too low in comparison with the salaries that may be obtained in other walks of life and in relation to the exacting nature of the work and the heavy responsibilities that are thrown upon the shoulders of the young teacher in the average rural school." The *Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation* claimed that "there has always been a reluctance on the part of the public to pay salaries which would establish the teaching profession as one worth entering from the financial point of view."

Discussions at community hearings brought out the opinion that salaries were inadequate to attract men into the profession, further their education, establish a home, and raise a family. The *Cut Knife School Teachers* felt that, on the basis of present salaries, the teacher's investment in his or her training was not worthwhile. "Money invested elsewhere would bring much greater returns."

While it was conceded that salaries have improved in recent years, the majority of rural communities agreed with *Craik* that "it seems apparent they are not high enough yet to cause young people to enter the profession in sufficient number." *Leroy* claimed that these increases "have not been sufficient to offset rising costs or to bring teachers on a par with industry, labour and other professions."

Working and Living Conditions. While there may be a shortage of personnel for the teaching profession, a few communities stated that working conditions in the profession were not adequate either to attract candidates or retain teachers. *Montmartre* commented on teachers' long working hours:

> "Conscientious teachers know they must work an extra 30 hours a week preparing their lessons, checking assignments, making out reports, taking charge of extra-curricular activities such as athletics, evening socials,

> drama and public speaking. These all add to the burden. Above all, the teacher is expected to improve his professional standing."

The *South Lashburn Homemakers* thought that "too much is expected of a teacher both at school and out of school. Some leave the profession for lower paid jobs on this account."

The shortage of teachers is felt most keenly in rural areas. Audiences at community hearings attributed this to the working and living conditions of rural teachers. The one-room country school, with multiple grades, small classes, and a shortage of equipment is not considered so attractive as the urban school. In addition, the problems of janitor work, distance from school, poor roads, and the difficulty of arranging satisfactory board and room deter teachers from accepting rural positions.

Numerous submissions to the Commission indicated that living conditions affect the supply of teachers and that poor living conditions are not necessarily offset by "increased salaries." Students of the *Foam Lake Composite High School* interpreted the effect of the poor living conditions of rural teachers on potential teachers thus:

> "Often the teacher is expected to do his or her best work when the only boarding place available is an attic room in a farm house 3 or 4 miles from school. People who see teachers working under such adverse conditions certainly are not encouraged to enter the teaching profession."

Besides deterring people from entering the profession, the *Cabri Home and School Club* claimed that living conditions contribute to teachers leaving the profession. "Many men leave the profession because they do not wish to subject their families to the sort of life men in the profession often have to expect, such as changing positions fairly often and small salaries."

Retention of Students

The problem of retaining students in school until graduation was discussed particularly by professional and provincial agencies. Professional organizations pointed to the low percentage of students who complete their schooling as a serious bottleneck in the development of adequate numbers of professionally trained personnel. The *Co-operative Commonwealth Youth Federation* observed that the low percentage of students who graduate from high school "is serious since a large proportion of rural raised and educated young people must find their way into urban employment." The *College of Education* presented figures indicating that, of every 100 students in Grade VI, only 33 were subsequently enrolled in Grade XII. In Canada as a whole, the level of retention was only slightly higher, although in the United States it was considerably improved.

Rural parents attending community hearings suggested the following reasons for students dropping out of school:

1) Correspondence courses tend to eliminate students. If students do not obtain the assistance they require from a teacher, they become discouraged and finally leave school.

2) Employment at good salaries is now available to people in the high school age group.

3) Some parents do not appreciate the value of higher education and consequently do not give sufficient encouragement to children to continue. The failure of parents to encourage students to continue their education may be due in part to lack of understanding on the

part of parents as to what is taught in the modern school.

4) Farmers hesitate to send their children to a town school for fear that they will not wish to return to the farm.

5) The trades do not recognize technical school training and demand on-the-job training, which draws students out of school.

6) Children leave school to provide farm labour.

7) Parents cannot afford to send a family of three or four to board at a centralized high school.

8) The range of subjects available to students in secondary schools is not sufficiently interesting, particularly for boys. Participants in community hearings agreed that parents have a heavy responsibility for encouraging continuance in school and that many have failed in this responsibility because of reasons indicated above.

With respect to continuation to higher education, lack of finances was considered a deterrent. The *Lashburn Women's Co-operative Guild* believed that "many capable students are not financially able to continue their higher education. . . . For a family with several children, it is the lack of finances, not the lack of desire, which most often prevents children continuing their education." This group deplored the result: "The contribution which they could make to their community and country is lost." Consultants, in commenting on various scholarship programs stated that financial obstacles prevented many students from going on to university. "There is a pool of students graduating out of Grade XII each year, who do not have the necessary finances to continue on to university."

Physical Facilities

Fifty-one per cent of the community briefs drew the Commission's attention to the problem of providing sufficient suitable school facilities. The growing elementary school population plus the centralization of high schools have created critical needs for school facilities in many areas.

Shellbrook indicated the scope of this problem. "There is immediate need for a four-room town school, a two-room village addition, a three-room village school, 4 one-room rural schools and an extensive addition to another rural school." The student body of the *Foam Lake Composite High School* described the inadequacy of its buildings.

> "In the Grade XI room there are 46 students in a room which should have no more than 30. . . . The shop facilities are in an ordinary classroom instead of a regular shop. . . . A recreation room is needed. . . . In the public school there are 186 students in five small rooms. . . . The girls' dormitory is very overcrowded."

The *Cabri Home and School Club* felt that, although its school "is fairly well equipped with lab facilities, shop, typewriters, good libraries (these) are all cramped into any available corner of the school which was built 40 years ago."

One individual added a plea for "a sewage disposal system and hydro for all schools," a point which, surprisingly, was not commented on to any extent by communities and organizations.

Regrouping of school facilities has increased the need for facilities at central locations. *Semans* pointed to its experience. When a bus route was arranged to bring the pupils from three rural schools into the Semans school, the existing facilities, such as the library and wash room, were inadequate to cope with the extra burden. In addition to the need for adequate high school buildings at central locations, living facilities are also needed for those students for whom conveyance is not provided. *Glaslyn* described the situation in its area:

> "The high schools are situated in central points — at Glaslyn, Glenbush, Medstead and Livelong. This means that some children do live too far away from school to travel from home every day and therefore must board out. This is very expensive and no doubt there are many students barred from further education on this one account. Also it is very difficult to find suitable boarding places in most urban centers."

Rural people indicated their interest in improved standards of education through their desire for more adequate equipment. The *Student Body of the School of Agriculture* submitted that there are "few of the schools in the rural areas and in the towns . . . sufficiently well equipped to provide a standard of education equal to that provided by the better equipped schools in the province." Numerous rural communities expressed similar opinions, detailing the equipment which they considered essential and which is not available at present. *Shellbrook* pointed out that "the library allowance has been and can be only what library authorities call a bare minimum." The *Student Body of the Moose Jaw Teachers College* reported on a survey of the forty practice teaching schools in that area. Although these schools were better than average, "the survey revealed inadequate libraries and the need for more projectors."

A consultant commented on the importance of more adequate library facilities thus:

> "The school library is an essential element in the school program; the basic purpose of the school library is identical with the basic purpose of the school itself. . . . The distinctive purpose of the school library is that of helping children and young people to develop abilities and habits of purposefully using books and libraries in attaining their goals of living. . . . Many . . . have never experienced adequate school library service and are not aware of what good school library service is or even that it does not exist. . . . Saskatchewan has only three trained school librarians in the whole province; the book collections vary a great deal both in quantity and quality; and many new schools are being built without provision for a library."

Although the need for improved equipment was sharply pointed out, consultants also pointed to the greatly increased cost of books and school supplies as obstacles to building libraries and adequately equipping schools.

Loreburn pressed for other facilities. "An auditorium should be built in each village school to provide facilities for physical education, music and drama presentations, and social activities for both pupil and parent." *Radisson* felt that "more use could be made of (school) basements (for recreation) if these were properly finished and heated."

Curriculum

In considering the teacher shortage the most critical problem in education today, the rural public was expressing its concern for the objectives and quality of education. Concern for the quality of education was also expressed in comments on curriculum. One-quarter of the community briefs dealt with some aspect of curriculum, either the choice of subjects available, the adequacy of emphasis on the "three R's," or vocational guidance.

The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* questioned 36 larger unit boards, 40 district boards, and 37 individual trustees as to whether educational standards are satisfactory. A majority of the responses were, "not satisfied."

Great diversity of opinion as to a suitable curriculum was revealed in the briefs from communities and provincial organizations. The rural communities tended to favour a broad curriculum, but at the same time feeling was general that there should be continued emphasis on the basic subjects. "The increasing lack of emphasis on what has come to be known as 'the three R's' " was a matter of concern to the *Saskatchewan Board of Trade. Carnduff* commented that "students seem to be lacking in 'the three R's' as evidenced by slipshod spelling, grammar and writing." *Wiseton* urged "revising the curriculum, stressing 'the three R's' and phonetics." One brief from the *Semans* community commented that "the inability of our children to spell correctly, to write legibly, or to express themselves whether orally or by written word in proper English is causing us grave concern." Other individuals deplored the lack of understanding or appreciation of any courses except technical courses.

Professional educators and provincial and professional organizations each indicated their conceptions of the inadequacy of the curriculum. Because of their individual interests, their conceptions of curriculum varied greatly. One consultant stated well the purpose of education in modern society:

> "The task of education in our society is to provide an environment which will enable pupils through experience to acquire not only knowledge and information but also the attitudes, ideals, understandings, appreciations, and skills necessary for effective participation in a democratic society."

The *Saskatchewan Library Association* called for more emphasis on the liberal arts, while other groups, such as the *Regina Astronomical Association* and the *Chemical Institute of Canada (South Saskatchewan Section)* questioned the adequacy of science training. One individual reflected still another point of view with the comment: "Most students go through our educational institutions entirely ignorant that political science and economics do exist, or how important politics and economics will be in their future life." The *Roman Catholic Hierarchy* and the *Saskatchewan Diocese of the Church of England* criticized modern curricula for failing to give adequate recognition to religion in education.

Opinion was unanimous on the need for vocational training. Communities and organizations called for training for farming and rural life, including home economics. As to where and how such training should be provided, however, opinion was divided. Numerous criticisms of the present curriculum were offered. The *Roman Catholic Hierarchy* felt strongly that:

> "Rural education . . . should be designed to fit rural youth for life on the land. The school curriculum should stress love of the land and pride of ownership. We realize that not all students in the rural school are fitted by temperament to life on the farm. But even they will benefit from a curriculum designed for the rural schools in so far as they will be good-will ambassadors for the farm in the urban centers where they will find suitable employment. Our concern should be, not that boys and girls leave the farm, but that so many leave not knowing why they leave or to what they are going."

The *School of Agriculture* of the University questioned the advisability of concentrating the development of vocational training in agriculture in the high schools of the province.

> "The ideal situation would be one in which students completed the gen-

> eral course of training in high school first, and then proceeded to a vocational school to secure the required training in agriculture. Unfortunately, experience has shown that this is not what is taking place and the ideal situation does not exist. Many boys who plan to stay on the farm do not complete their high school work. Many who do complete it, do not proceed to a vocational school. These boys, then, do not receive the benefit of a training course to fit them for their chosen occupation in life."

One consultant believed that greater importance should be

> ". . . devoted to the question of agricultural education at the secondary school level. Emphasis certainly will be placed upon modern technical aspects of Saskatchewan agriculture but in addition the broader aspect of agriculture as a way of life needs stress. An appreciation of agriculture and its problems in relation to other activities of the community, local, national, and international, needs attention."

One individual felt that farm boys "should be given a thorough grounding in farm practices, motor mechanics, livestock, etc., and very much less of the standard curriculum, so that when they leave school they will have learnt something they can make use of at once."

Vocational Guidance

A few organizations criticized the lack of vocational guidance in the schools. The *College of Education,* for instance, suggested:

> "The guidance program must continue to function for students throughout the high school grades. During this period its function is to help students succeed as students, and as persons, in order that they may be prepared for 'the next step' upon leaving high school. Workers in the field of guidance do not make choices for students. They seek to motivate students to plan for the future, to supply information that will enable students to plan wisely, and to free students from those factors of a personal nature which may impede their progress towards a worthwhile goal."

Centralization of School Facilities

Rural people discussed with great interest the trend towards closing of one-room rural schools and conveying students to central points. The majority of opinions favoured centralization as a means of dealing with some of the urgent problems of education. Other opinions indicated resistance to centralization and concern that losses in the training of children and in rural life generally would result from centralization. Much of the discussion of centralization was related to an evaluation of the larger unit of administration, and the trend towards centralized schools was attributed in some measure to the organization of larger units.

Many groups saw centralization as a solution to the main problems of the educational system. Forty-three per cent of community briefs urged the development of consolidated schools. *Shellbrook* claimed the solution to the problems of inadequate facilities and the shortage of teachers "lies in eliminating small schools . . . and establishing large, adequately equipped, capably staffed schools, centrally located in larger attendance areas." *Lumsden* believed the "improvement of a few schools with many pupils, rather than the upkeep of many small schools with few pupils," constituted the most efficient use of finances. The *Cut Knife School Teachers* maintained that, from the teachers' standpoint, "centralization would do away with a great many objectionable features . . . and make the profession more attractive." *Everton* believed:

> "There should be larger schools in the main centers to which pupils might be transported by bus. This might help to overcome the present teacher shortage. There should be a wider curriculum in these larger centers to meet the varied needs of the children, and there should be greater opportunity for technical training in these local centers. More young people who would make highly qualified teachers might be encouraged to enter the profession, through the payment of adequate salaries."

The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* considered the trend to "fewer and larger schools" typical of trends elsewhere:

> "We believe this is the natural solution to our teacher supply problem. Furthermore, we believe that it is impossible to provide equal opportunity to our rural students as long as they must attend low enrolled, one-roomed schools where there are frequently teachers of poorer qualifications or even study supervisors."

At community hearings the majority of people in attendance believed that centralization was essential to remedy the teacher shortage. Further, in spite of some difference of opinion, the majority of parents appeared to favour the principle of centralization. Parents generally felt that, although children may obtain "book learning" in a small school, they lose in other aspects of education.

Other groups, while recognizing the value of centralization of facilities, imposed certain qualifications on its extension. *Punnichy* stated that "if rural schools cannot be made attractive to teachers, then more students should be brought into town schools by bus and bombardier." At *Lashburn*, two groups at the community forum felt that "rural schools might be closed . . . when roads and other local conditions warrant." *Hodgeville*, however, presented an outright plea for "bigger and better schools" in central areas "to accommodate students conveyed from small districts by bus."

With respect to location, some communities indicated that their interest in consolidation was on the condition that centralized schools were located in the country. Another consideration was the distances which students should be conveyed. The possibility of dormitories was raised in some presentations, but dormitories were generally felt to be acceptable only if conveyance could not be provided.

Although the majority opinion favoured centralization, some communities were concerned about the losses which might result from centralization. For example, the *Domremy Farm Forum*, while recognizing that "in some cases consolidation of schools is necessary due to the depopulation of rural areas," nevertheless felt "this leads to the loss of interest in farming by the younger generation." *Mankota* agreed that "centralized schooling has a tendency to draw rural children away from their natural environment which is considered the greater part of their education."

A related question is the effect of centralization on farming. The *Saskatchewan Livestock Board* expressed the strong opinion that "the present tendency towards a centralized system of education would appear far from desirable and not at all in the interests of those engaged in livestock production" as the livestock farmer "must almost of necessity be domiciled on the farm" throughout the entire year. The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association*, reporting the results of a questionnaire submitted to a number of unit and district boards and individual trustees, indicated that the majority (57 per cent) felt that properly established central schools would help keep families on the farm; 25 per cent, primarily district boards and individual trustees, replied in the negative; 7 per cent were undecided.

In addition to possible undesirable effects of centralization, the problem of providing satisfactory conveyance for elementary students was raised. The comment of the *Buckland* community was typical of numerous statements: "It isn't desirable for the younger children, the chief drawback being the road conditions which would be a stumbling block to many in getting the children to the school bus stop."

Finally, in outlining the requirements of an acceptable program of centralization, provincial organizations stressed the need for careful planning. The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* cited some of the consequences of insufficient planning:

> "In recent years we have noticed a trend on the part of farmers to move their homes into permanent centers. This may or may not be done in order to send their children to the urban schools. In many cases such movement by some rural residents has created difficulties for those remaining. We believe that this type of voluntary centralization may jeopardize rural life, whereas a carefully planned centralization program with a satisfactory transportation system from the farm homes can provide the general advantages of centralization and would foster the retention of rural families in their farm homes. . . ."

Evaluation of School Administration

Larger units of administration were extensively discussed at the community hearings. From these discussions it appeared that farm people generally have accepted the larger unit as a satisfactory system of administration. Rural communities in the northern areas of the province were particularly enthusiastic about the value of the larger units, since in many cases they have provided the means for essential improvements in education. Opposition to larger units was based largely on the contention that larger units have been responsible for the closing of rural schools and for increasing tax rates.

The need for increased co-operation between unit boards and rural municipal councils was frequently stressed. The following comment from the *Radisson* brief typifies the many comments on this subject: "There should be greater co-operation between school unit boards and municipal councils in regard to school roads, especially in districts where pupils have to be conveyed on account of low enrolment." The *Saskatchewan Association of Rural Municipalities* reviewed the problems of many municipalities in meeting the needs of a conveyance program and indicated its desire for closer co-ordination between unit boards and municipal councils.

School Finances

Community briefs were concerned with the problem of financing an adequate educational program. *Shellbrook* gave the Commission a picture of present costs of education and of recent increases in these costs:

> "In 1946 the Shell Lake School Unit comprised 92 districts with a total assessment of $8,061,991 and an average assessment of $87,630 per district.

> By 1952 the unit had increased in size to 100 districts with a total assessment of $8,242,681 but with an average assessment of only $82,426 per district. (The mill rate rose from an average of 15 in 1946 to an average of about 21.7 in 1952 with an increase of only $708 in the average levy per district.) The average cost per classroom for fuel was $65 in 1946 but was $96 in 1952. The number of teachers employed increased from 117 to 127 and their average salary increased $792. Library expenditures rose from $5 per classroom in 1946 to $23 in 1949 and have remained there since. Janitor services cost $105 per classroom in 1946 and $144 in 1952."

Rosthern expressed the opinion that "most of the receipts are spent on teachers' salaries and fuel accounts, leaving very little to be spent on improvements or instructional and recreational equipment." *Broderick* recognized that the cost of education had increased and added that "in all probability it will continue to increase." The *Saskatchewan Board of Trade* also believed that "education must continue to be costly, to provide adequate facilities and competitive salaries," and expressed the opinion that "businessmen generally accept this conclusion and are willing to carry their share of the burden." The *Saskatchewan Association of Rural Municipalities* reported that "there seems to be a definite opinion in the councils that capital expenditures of Larger School Units over reasonable limits should be sanctioned by a central authority such as the Local Government Board, in order to keep these expenditures to actual requirements."

When queried by the Commission about meeting increased expenditures for education, rural people generally agreed that they would pay more for education provided no other sources for financing education were available and provided the expenditure assured acceptable standards and facilities.

One consultant summarized the need for adequate financing thus:

> "As the schools and a host of other less formal agencies make an effective impact upon the public there is a growing awareness of needs on the part of our people. The people of Saskatchewan today expect and even demand much more in the way of social and educational services than they did in previous generations. For example, secondary education is today accepted as much a birthright as elementary education was thirty years ago. This creates at the local and provincial government level a continuing problem of adequate financial support."

A few communities expressed concern about any increase in the educational levy. *Punnichy* contended that the present tax rate is "fairly high, being from 20 to 28 mills for rural persons of the district and from 24 to 32 mills for the urban centers." *Foam Lake* stated:

> "At first glance it would appear that increasing costs of education could be met by a higher mill rate. In view, however, of the municipal inspector's report that the danger line in taxation (in regard to this area) has been reached, another approach to the problem is indicated. Supporting this it should be remembered that our economy is now buoyant, and that even a minimum recession might well prove disastrous in the collection of sufficient taxes to maintain our schools at the present level."

Meadow Lake commented that "the mounting tax arrears throughout the district would tend to indicate that maximum costs and services have been almost reached." The *Cabri Home and School Club* believed that "municipal taxation in a predominantly wheat growing area could not provide much heavier levies continuously over the years." The hearings also brought out the difficulties of increasing school taxes in a fluctuating economy.

Increased taxation may be tolerable as long as prices remain high, but an economic recession with its impact on revenues from taxes might seriously disrupt the education program.

Not only was it felt that present financial resources are inadequate to meet the rising costs of education and that difficulties would be encountered in raising tax rates, but some feeling was expressed that the burden of school taxes is greater in rural than in urban areas. *Unity* expressed the opinion that:

> "Farmers contribute more than their share to the cost of education as compared to individuals of other groups — professional men, doctors, dentists, lawyers, bankers, high school teachers, railway employees, and many other wage earners who are in the $3,000 to $6,000 net income class. . . . A half section of land close to the town of Unity pays $160 per year for school taxes, whereas the average contribution by the individuals of the groups mentioned . . . is less than $50 per annum per individual for school purposes."

Unity urged a more equitable allocation of tax burden as between urban and rural taxpayers.

The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* believed that:

> "The burden of educational finance rests too heavily on property taxation. . . . Certain classes of our society are receiving the benefits of our educational services without bearing a proportionate share of the costs. An example of this is an urban resident of comparatively large income, but not owning property of assessment comparable with rural residents of similar income."

Participation in School Affairs

Some communities considered the participation of parents in educational affairs inadequate and expressed concern for the indifference of the parents to the problems of education. *Meadow Lake* felt "there has been and still is, a good deal of apathy towards education. This is reflected in delinquent taxes, poor attendance of pupils, and pupils leaving school on their fifteenth birthday." The *Maxstone Social Club* pointed out that "many people criticize the teachers, the school board, and the newer method of education," but asked, "what do they do about it? How many people take enough interest in education to attend the election of school trustees, or take time to consult the teacher concerning his or her individual methods of teaching? Many misunderstandings would be avoided if such interest existed."

At community hearings an attempt was made to determine whether people believed there is less participation in school affairs today than in the past. Opinion was divided on this point. Some considered there had been a decrease in parent participation. Others felt there had been no change. Some believed that the younger parents do not take so much interest in education as the older people in the community. At one hearing it was suggested that people today take a greater interest in education generally but less interest in the actual administration of the school.

Where loss of participation was noted, the larger unit was criticized by one group as being largely responsible for the loss of local interest. The *Roman Catholic Hierarchy*, admitting the benefits of the larger units, believed they have

> ". . . definitely lessened interest in education at the local level. While it is true that some local trustees abused their powers in the past resulting in some teachers being victimized, nevertheless, the system was a good one

since the trustees were elected by the parents and were responsible to the parents. There was a real and lively interest in school affairs. In the Larger Unit system the board of trustees which manages the affairs of all the school districts does not have to answer to the districts for its decision. In effect, the power of the superintendent has increased immeasurably while the local trustees have been stripped of all authority and responsibility."

In the opinion of others, the present system of electing sub-unit trustees has caused electors to lose interest in elections.

Irrespective of the cause of lack of parent participation, however, the problem is considered serious. Three-quarters of the community briefs dealing with education called for an increase in parent-teacher co-operation.

Summary

The people of Saskatchewan gave great attention to the problems of providing satisfactory education. Eighty per cent of community briefs dealt with some aspect of education. They stressed the need for a high level of educational attainment and equality of educational opportunity. Professional organizations and government consultants emphasized the shortage of technically and professionally trained personnel.

Problems in education were viewed in the framework of changing economic and social conditions. Increased farm sizes, mechanization, and loss of population in rural areas have created problems in securing qualified teachers in one-room rural schools, transporting children to centralized schools, and in financing education in sparsely settled areas and urban centers.

In the opinion of rural people, the main problem in education at present is the shortage of qualified teachers. Some phrased the problem as an excessive number of schools rather than a shortage of teachers. Inadequate salaries and difficult working and living conditions were considered causes of the shortage.

Other problems discussed included the reasons for low retention of students, the inadequacies of school buildings, roads, and school equipment, the enrichment of the curriculum, and the need for vocational guidance.

Although the majority of rural people support centralization as a practical means of providing modern education for rural students, some question was raised as to possible undesirable effects, principally the orientation of young people away from farming and rural life. Opinion was divided on the most satisfactory location of central schools. In general, the public conception of centralization seemed to involve attendance at the nearest operating school.

Rural people generally seem to have accepted the larger school unit as a satisfactory system of administration but expressed the need for greater co-operation between unit boards and rural municipal councils.

The high cost of modern education is causing concern, particularly because many communities feel that school tax rates are sufficiently high for an economy subject to great variations in yield and prices. Rural people were concerned with the optimum tax on property as well as equalization of the school tax burden in rural and urban areas. When queried about meeting increased expenditures for education, however, rural people generally agreed that they would pay more for education provided no other sources for financing were available and provided the expenditures assured acceptable standards and facilities.

Rural people expressed great concern for the low level of participation on the part of parents in school affairs. Three-quarters of the community briefs dealing with education called for increased parent-teacher co-operation.

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CHAPTER III

Environmental Change and Rural Education

As the most vital institution in our society, the system of education must at all times be intimately related to the needs and conditions of the society which it serves. Thus, the usefulness of the educational system must be measured in terms of its continuing adjustment to social conditions. A study of the adjustment of education to broad trends is therefore essential to understand developing problems in education and to determine the adequacy of the educational system to meet modern needs and conditions.

In this chapter, historical trends in the development of education in Saskatchewan are first briefly summarized. Then, environmental changes and their impact on education are analysed. Finally, a more intensive view is taken of educational trends affecting curriculum and standards of education, personnel, facilities, organization and administration of education, and financing of education. From the vantage point afforded by a survey of these adjustments, the main problems in rural education today can be studied.

HISTORICAL TRENDS[1]

Settlement policies in the Northwest Territories influenced the establishment of small local school districts in the 1880's. The Homestead Act of 1872 and the preemption clause of 1879 were responsible for the establishment of quarter and half section farms and a pattern of relatively dense farm settlement. In these settlements local school districts were formed not to exceed an area of 36 square miles and governed by a board of three elected trustees with power to hire teachers, purchase supplies, and acquire property. By 1885, 59 school districts had been formed in the area that is now Saskatchewan.

In the following years requirements for school district organization were modified to reduce the maximum area included in a school district and to increase the minimum number of children between the ages of 5 and 16 that had to be included. By 1896, the maximum area for a school district had been reduced to 25 square miles and the minimum number of children required had been increased to 12.[2]

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[1] Material for this section was taken from the Statutes of Saskatchewan; *Annual Reports*, Department of Education; and James D. Denny, *The Organization of Public Education in Saskatchewan*, Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, Toronto, 1929.

[2] The School Ordinance, Ordinances of the Northwest Territories, 1896, No. 2, p. 9.

One of the basic requirements for school district organization was the assumption of responsibility by local people. At first, school districts were formed only on local request. To avoid neglect of children in areas where no petition was filed for a school district, the Commissioner of Education was empowered to establish a district provided the area met minimum requirements as to number of pupils and ratepayers and included an acceptable acreage of land that would be liable for assessment. As early as 1883, the Lieutenant-Governor of the Territories was empowered to disorganize a school district if it failed to employ a duly qualified teacher for at least three months in each year, failed to elect and keep in office a duly qualified board of trustees, or failed to pay debentures for building of a school as agreed upon.

With the expansion of the railroad and the growth of villages and towns, boundaries of school districts, which were not contiguous, required readjustment. To avoid higher taxes in urban school districts, many farm people sought to have their lands withdrawn from village-centered districts.

When the province was organized in 1905, there were 896 school districts in existence. The number increased to 1,705 by 1908. By 1921, 4,522 districts had been established, but 212 had already ceased to operate a school.

School organization had thus begun to respond to the decreased density of population in many areas. In 1912, legislation was passed authorizing the formation of large school districts or the consolidation of existing districts to permit conveying of students to central schools.[3] To provide a tax base to finance the cost of conveying, these districts were to be not less than 35 square miles nor more than 50 square miles in area. The School Grants Act was amended to authorize provincial grants for conveyance, which were not to exceed one-third the cost.[4] Between 1912 and 1926, 40 consolidated districts were formed. In 1914, another step was taken to provide education for children in sparsely settled areas. The organization of school districts was authorized in areas with more than 5 but fewer than 16 pupils, where the attendance would not be enough to permit earning the full grant. These districts were authorized for the purpose of providing conveyance for children to a school in an adjoining district. Thus, in the words of the Department of Education in 1914:

> Consolidation has made a fair start in Saskatchewan and wherever due care and judgment have been exercised by the officials the results are satisfactory. It undoubtedly solves the problem of regular and punctual attendance. Better teachers, buildings and grounds usually follow with the resulting greater efficiency. In such cases although the cost may be slightly more than that of the ordinary rural school the ratepayers are generally well satisfied with the value received for the money spent.[5]

Since the establishment of local school districts, education has been financed by local taxes and government grants. After the passage of the Rural Municipality Act in 1909, the rural municipalities were responsible for levying and collecting taxes to meet the requisitions of local school districts. Where larger school units have been established since 1944, the larger units fix the mill rate and the municipalities continue to collect the taxes.

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[3] Stats. of Sask., 1912-13, c. 35, s. 1.

[4] Stats. of Sask., 1912-13, c. 37, s. 1.

[5] "Consolidated Schools in Saskatchewan," *Annual Report*, Department of Education, 1914, p. 7.

Local school districts, established on petition of a number of homesteaders, were soon found to have widely divergent assessments and therefore gross inequalities in tax rates and revenue. In addition to variations in assessment, the instability of agricultural income accentuated varying financial resources among school districts that were each trying to provide similar services. The financial limitations of the small school districts undoubtedly contributed to early legislation authorizing large or consolidated districts with a more adequate tax base.

Government grants to local school districts have been made since 1885.[6] Originally, grants were designed to encourage increased attendance, to improve educational opportunity by lengthening the school year, and to encourage the employment of well-qualified teachers. Continual revisions in the grant structure were made through the years as educational requirements and organization were modified.

The provision of education in the Northwest Territories was handicapped by a shortage of qualified teachers. In 1886, 77 schools serving 2,550 students employed 84 teachers. In 1887, legislation was enacted permitting the issuance of certificates to untrained personnel. Two union schools were authorized to teach normal school in 1890, and in 1893 the first regular normal school was established in Regina. In the same year, non-professional certificates were invalidated as teachers' licences.

At the turn of the century, teachers and teacher trainees were imported from abroad and from other provinces. Between 1906 and 1926 the province issued certificates to 11,153 teachers who had been trained outside the province. In the same period, approximately 18,500 students were enrolled in normal schools, 5,315 of whom had been trained outside the province. By 1927, the supply of teachers trained in Saskatchewan was sufficient to meet requirements, and in subsequent years until the early 1940's there were more trained teachers than opportunities for teaching.

Secondary education was first provided in urban centers. Union schools, which offered both elementary and secondary schooling, were organized by 1891 in seven such centers. With the formation of the province and growth of population, demand for improved facilities increased, and as a result the Secondary Education Act was passed in 1907.[7] Under this Act, any town or city could pass a bylaw to establish a high school district coterminous with the urban municipal unit. Six high school districts were formed in 1907, and in succeeding years the number increased to a high of 24 in 1919.

The provision of secondary education was not limited to the secondary school districts. As early as 1908, secondary classes were offered in rural elementary schools and in continuation or high school rooms in town, village, and hamlet districts. High school classes offered at the rural schools were usually only to the Grade X level, and senior high school grades were taken at central or secondary schools.

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[6] Ordinances of the Northwest Territories, 1885, No. 3, ss. 85-88.

[7] Stats. of Sask., 1907, c. 25.

In summary, rural education was first provided by small local school districts influenced by the pattern of settlement on quarter and half section farms. Schooling was financed through local taxes and government grants designed to raise the level of education. Unequal and varying financial resources of school districts and a sparse rural population contributed to the organization of enlarged and consolidated school districts as early as 1912. Secondary education was provided both in large urban centers and in rural elementary schools and in continuation or high school rooms in town, village, and hamlet districts.

ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGES AND THEIR IMPACT ON EDUCATION

Rural schools are closely related to the rural community. Their support is derived from the rural community, and their services in turn are directed to the rural community. Changes in the rural environment of necessity affect rural education. Two main forces in the rural environment and their effects on rural education are examined in this section—the changing organization of agricultural production and the growing inter-relationship between rural and urban populations and cultures.

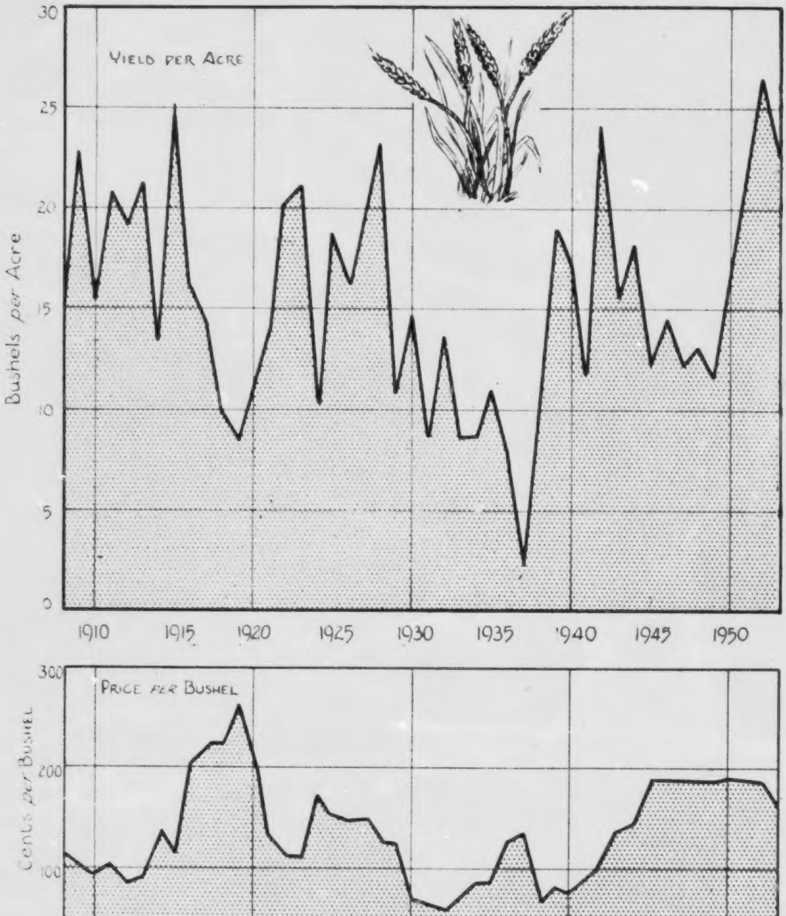
Organization of Agricultural Production

Farmers in Saskatchewan have contended with varying yields and prices since the earliest days of the province. Figure 1 shows the great variations in yields and prices for wheat that have occurred from 1908 to 1953. This variability in production and market prices of agricultural products, coupled with advances in technology that have transformed agriculture, have led to three main changes in contemporary agriculture—changes in farm size, increased mechanization of farming, and changes in the structure of farm capital. Associated with these changes have been changes in the level of farm income and in the distribution of population.

Changes in Farm Size

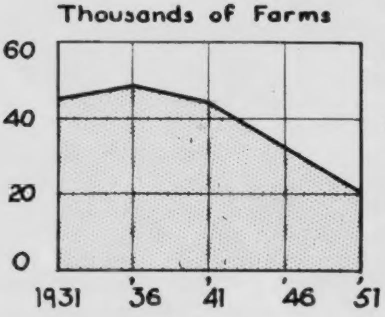
In the face of low and uncertain yields and prices, the quarter and half section farms of the settlement era were clearly inadequate. Larger acreages were needed for a satisfactory living, and the cultivation of larger farms was made possible by technological advances and the mechanization of agriculture. The trend towards larger farms since 1931 is shown in Figure 2. Table 2 shows that in 1951 there were fewer farm units than at any time since 1916. The total number of farms in the province declined by more than 30,000 from 1936 to 1951. The decline has been primarily in quarter and half section farms, while the numbers of larger farms have increased. Farms have, on the average, almost doubled in size since 1911, and the average improved acreage per farm has almost tripled since that date. Thus, with an increase in the number of improved acres per farm and a decline in the number of small farms, fewer farm operators are managing greater total acreages.

FIGURE 1. YIELD AND PRICE VARIABILITY OF WHEAT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1908-1953



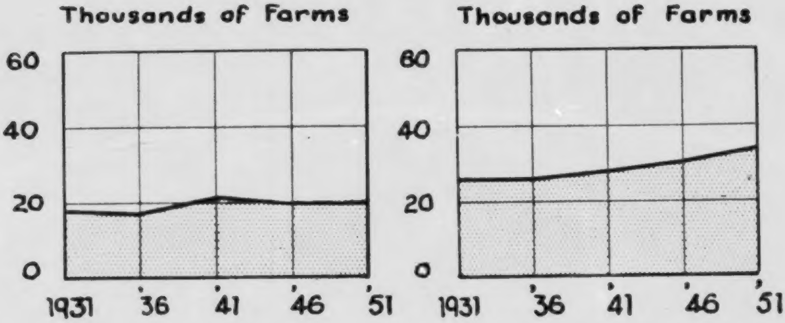
SOURCE: Yield data obtained from *Handbook of Agricultural Statistics*, Part I — Field Crops, Dominion Bureau of Statistics; price data obtained from H. G. L. Strange, *A Short History of Prairie Agriculture*, Appendix IX, Searle Grain Company, Ltd., Winnipeg, 1954. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

FIGURE 2. FARM SIZE TRENDS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1931-1951



ONE QUARTER

TWO QUARTERS



THREE QUARTERS

FOUR QUARTERS AND OVER

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

Farm size adjustment has progressed unevenly between farms and between regions of the province. Figure 3 shows the much greater number of large farms in the prairie region than in the park region. In 1951, there were only 4,851 quarter section farms in the prairie region compared with 14,542 in the park region. In the same year there were 16,442 farms of more than one section in the prairie region but only 4,879 such farms in the park region. Farm size adjustments have thus proceeded farther in the prairie region than in the park region.

Increased Mechanization

Increases in farm size have been closely connected with mechanization of agriculture. Figure 4 shows the increase in number of tractors on Saskatchewan farms. Tractors increased in number from 26,674 in 1926 to 106,664 in 1951. Similar increases have occurred in numbers of trucks, automobiles, and combines, while numbers of binders and threshers have decreased.

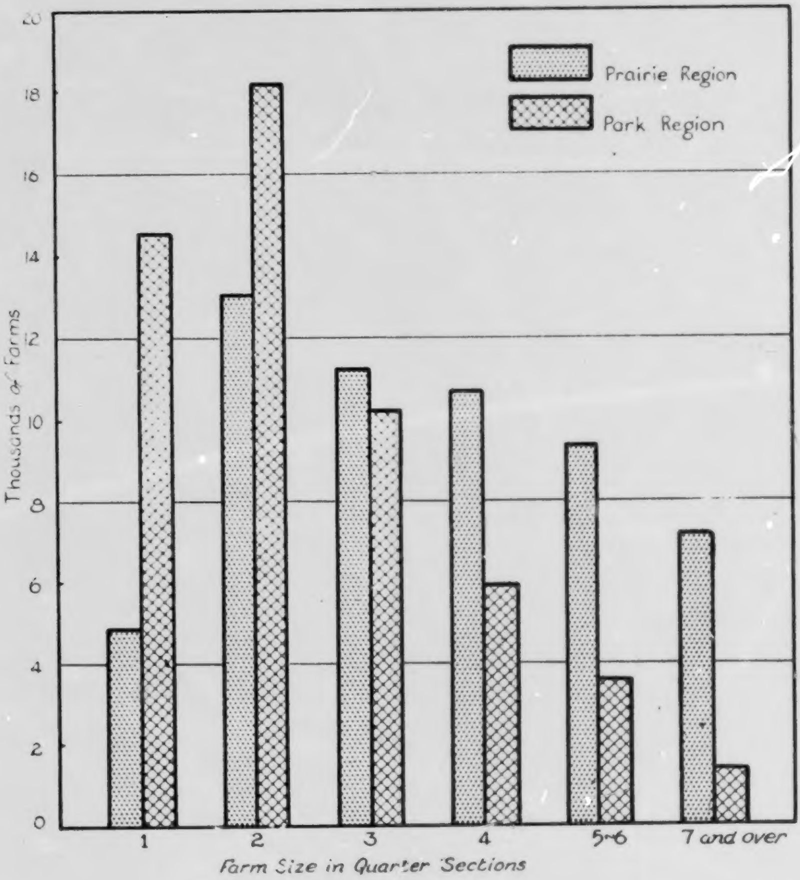
TABLE 2. CHANGE IN NUMBER, TOTAL AREA, AND AVERAGE SIZE OF FARMS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1911-1951

Year	Number of Farms	Occupied Land		Improved Land	
		Total Area	Average Area per Farm	Total Area Improved	Average Improved Area per Farm
		Thousands of acres	Acres	Thousands of acres	Acres
1911	95,013	28,099	296	11,872	125
1916	104,006	36,801	354	19,632	189
1921	119,451	44,023	369	25,037	210
1926	117,781	45,945	390	27,714	235
1931	136,472	55,673	408	33,549	246
1936	142,391	56,904	400	33,632	236
1941	138,713	59,961	432	35,577	257
1946	125,612	59,416	473	35,590	283
1951	112,018	61,663	551	38,807	346

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Because of the high costs of mechanization, the extent of mechanization varies with the size of farm. Figure 5 shows that the proportion of farms reporting tractors rose as farm size increased. Thus, only 49 per cent of quarter section farms reported tractors in 1951, but more than 95 per cent of farms of more than one section had tractors. Farm size increases have been more extensive in the prairie region than in the park region, and mechanization is further advanced in the prairie region than in the park region (Figure 6).

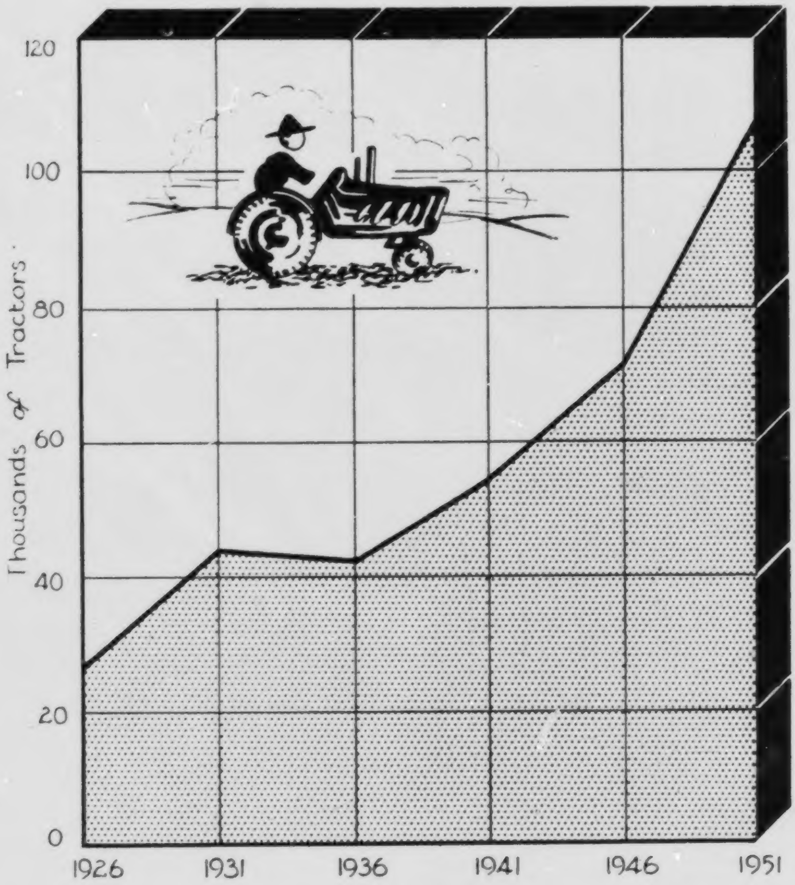
FIGURE 3. TOTAL FARMS BY SIZE AND REGION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951*



SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, special compilation by Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

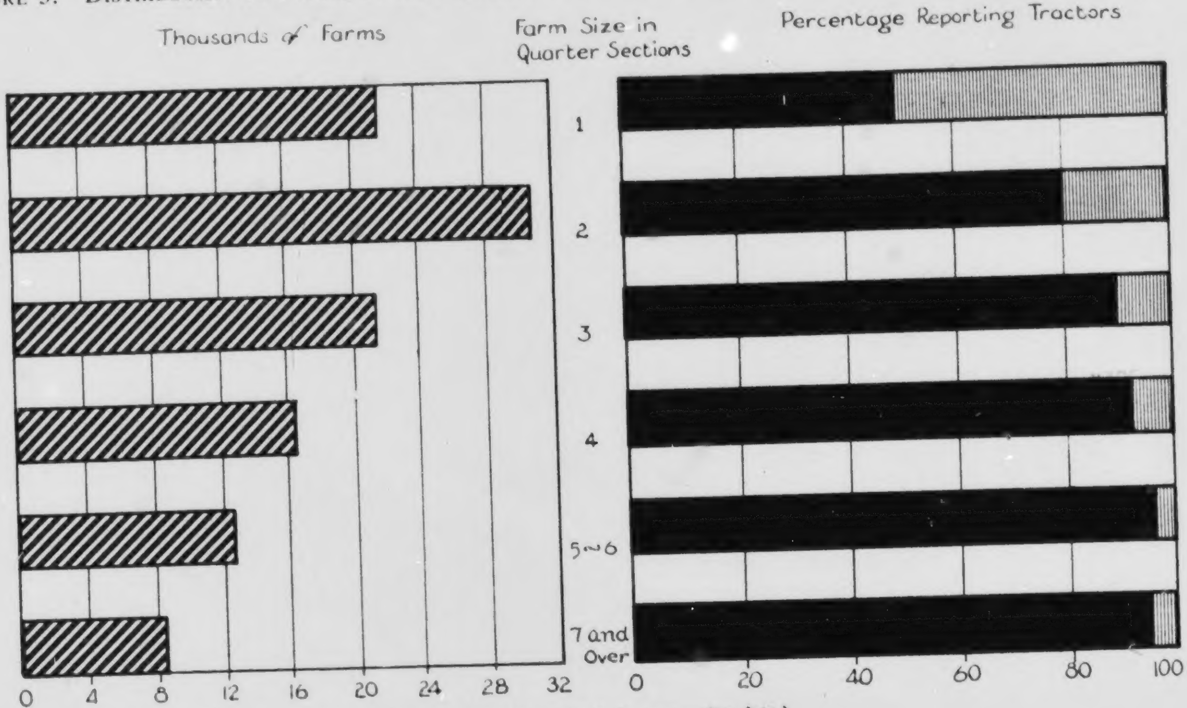
* Farms under one quarter section in size are not included.

FIGURE 4. NUMBER OF TRACTORS ON SASKATCHEWAN FARMS, 1926-1951



SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

FIGURE 5. DISTRIBUTION OF FARMS BY SIZE CATEGORIES, AND NUMBER REPORTING TRACTORS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951



SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

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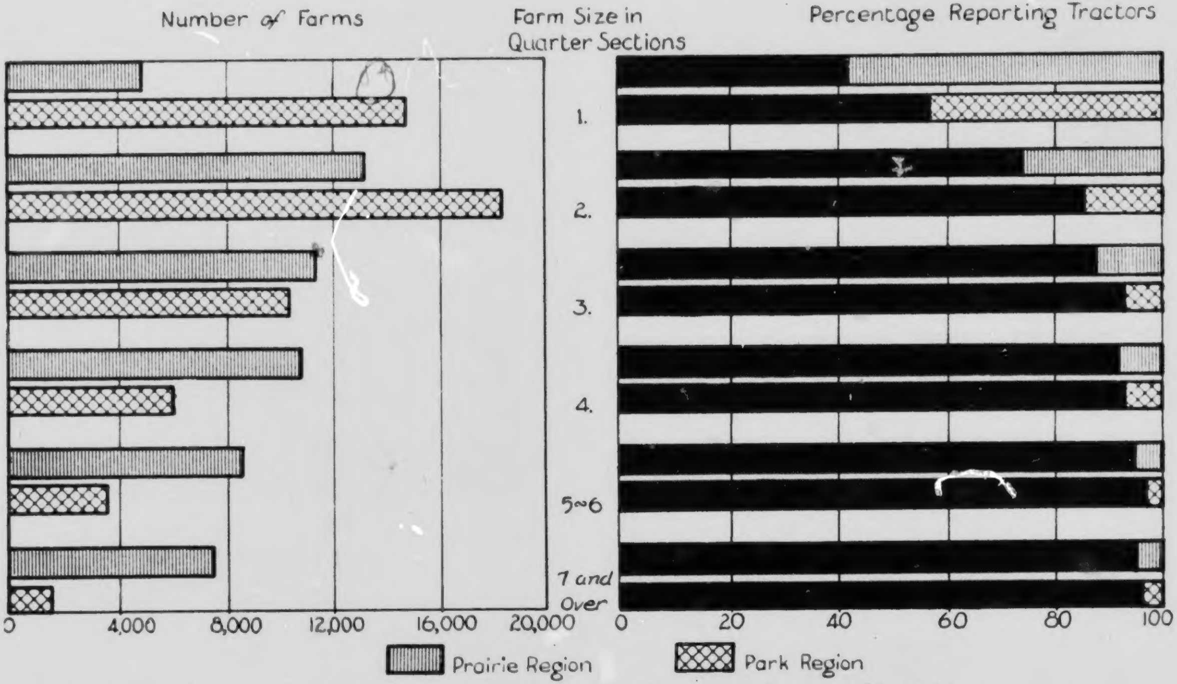
FIGURE 6. TOTAL FARMS BY SIZE AND REGION, AND NUMBER REPORTING TRACTORS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951*



SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, special compilation by Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)
* Farms under one quarter section in size not included.

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Structure of Farm Capital

As farm size and mechanization have increased, farm capital investment has also increased. Table 3 shows the changes in total farm capital for all farms and the average farm capital investment per farm for the years 1921 to 1951. Average per farm capital invested in land, buildings, and equipment was $13,814 in 1921 in the period following World War I, fell to a low of $6,459 in 1941, and with farm size increases and postwar mechanization rose to $17,781 in 1951.[a]

Changes in the organization of agricultural production have some direct implications for education. Increases in farm size have heightened the commercial character of farming. Mechanization, in addition to increasing the farmer's productivity, has also multiplied his capital investment in machinery and made necessary an increase in his working capital. All these aspects demand a level of skill in business management not associated with farming of an earlier day. New technical skills are required as well, both to achieve maximum efficiency and to apply new scientific methods to the farm enterprise. To the educational system falls much of the responsibility for providing leadership and guidance in the development of these new skills.

Income

As a result of changes in agricultural production, average per farm income has increased gradually since 1941 but has remained essentially unstable (Table 4).

Not only does farm income vary from year to year, but the distribution of income among individual farmers shows that a high proportion of farmers suffer from low incomes. Since specific data on net income distribution are not available, data on the distribution of farms by value of products sold are presented in Table 5. On more than half of all farms in 1950 the gross value of products sold amounted to less than $2,500. Thus, although farm income levels have tended upwards, farm income has remained unstable and many farmers have continued to suffer from low incomes.

TABLE 3. AVERAGE CAPITAL PER FARM, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-1951

Item	1921	1926	1931	1936	1941	1946	1951
Total farm capital ... $000's	1,650,069	1,343,358	1,272,663	1,023,100	896,013	1,230,906	1,991,773
Total number of farms	119,451	117,781	136,472	142,391	138,713	125,612	112,018
Capital per farm ... $	13,814	11,406	9,325	7,185	6,459	9,799	17,781

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

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[a] The relatively high figures in 1921 and 1951 are partly explained by postwar inflation.

TABLE 4. NET FARM INCOME PER FARM OPERATOR, SASKATCHEWAN, SELECTED YEARS, 1926-1954

Year	Net Farm Income	Number of Farm Operators*	Net Farm Income per Farm Operator
	$000's		$
1926	166,736	117,781	1,416
1931	−34,849	136,472	−255
1936	11,312	142,391	79
1941	70,055	138,713	505
1946	213,817	125,612	1,702
1947	250,761	122,894	2,040
1948	376,379	120,175	3,132
1949	385,287	117,456	3,280
1950	269,572	114,737	2,349
1951	552,962	112,018	4,936
1952	564,917	109,299	5,169
1953	474,290†	106,580	4,450
1954	124,000‡	103,861	1,194

SOURCE: Data on number of farm operators from *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*; data on net farm income from *Handbook of Agricultural Statistics*, Part II — Farm Income and *Quarterly Bulletin of Agricultural Statistics*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

* Number of farm operators for intercensal years is estimated by projecting the average annual change between 1946 and 1951.

† Preliminary estimate.

‡ Estimate by Economic Advisory and Planning Board.

TABLE 5. FARMS CLASSIFIED BY VALUE OF PRODUCTS SOLD, SASKATCHEWAN, 1950

Gross Value of Products Sold	Number of Farms	Per Cent of Total Farms
Less than $2,499	57,984	52
$2,500—$3,749	20,720	19
$3,750—$4,999	11,466	10
$5,000—$7,499	10,520	9
$7,500 and over	6,806	6
Other farms*	4,522	4
Total	112,018	100

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

* Includes part-time farms and institutional farms.

The rise in the general level of farm income has implications for education, since rising farm income stimulates a demand for higher quality education and also increases ability to pay taxes. But fluctuations in farm income and great disparity among individual farmers in the distribution of income make payment of school taxes burdensome for many farmers and tax collection difficult for municipal authorities.

Rural Population

Changes in agricultural production also affected rural population in several ways. Rural population (persons living on farms and in small unincorporated places) has been a steadily declining proportion of total population since 1901, with the exception of a slight increase during the 1930's (Figure 7). The decline in farm population has been most extreme. While rural non-farm population has decreased gradually, the number of people living on farms dropped by 30 per cent between 1936 and 1951. The decline coincides with the increase in farm size and the rapid mechanization of agriculture.

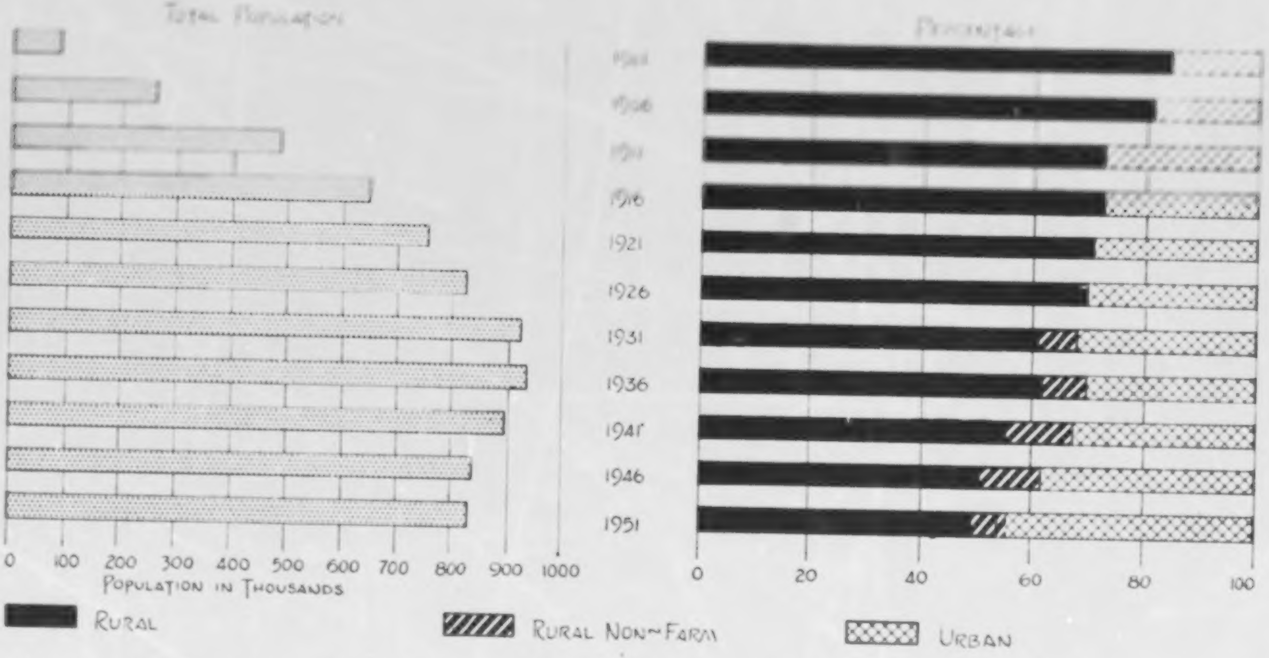
The decline in farm population represents both a rural-to-urban migration within the province and an out-of-province migration. Figure 8 shows the marked increase in the size of Saskatchewan urban centers of more than 300 population since 1936.

Movement of farm families to town explains some of the increase in population in small urban centers. In 1951, of 112,000 farm operators in the province, more than 18,000 (16 per cent) were living off the farm (Figure 9). Almost twice as many farm operators in the prairie region, with its large straight grain farms, had become town farmers as was true for the mixed farming area of the park region.

The net effect of all types of movement away from the farm has been to reduce significantly the density of rural population. Figure 10 shows the distribution of population throughout the province for the years 1911, 1931, and 1951. Between 1936 and 1951 population density in the prairie region declined from 4.5 persons per square mile to 2.9; in the park region, from 6.3 to 4.7. This adjustment has been a central factor in the consolidation of school facilities and has brought the urban and rural school systems into closer contact. Any further reduction in the density of rural population will create additional problems in the organization of rural education.

While the reduction in farm population reflects in part the rural-to-urban migration of farm families, it also represents the migration of farm youth, both to urban centers in Saskatchewan and to areas outside the province. The actual extent of this type of movement is difficult to isolate. Table 6 indicates the net migration of youth from rural areas based only on a comparison of distribution of age groups by five-year intervals.

FIGURE 7. TRENDS IN RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1901-1951*



SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)
* Rural and urban population figures for 1951 are according to definition of "rural" and "urban" used in 1941 and earlier censuses.

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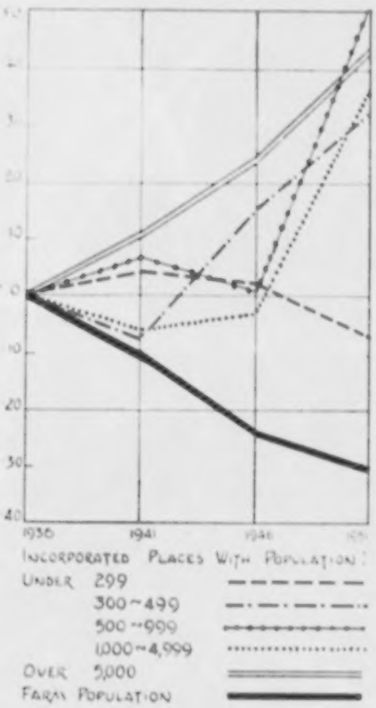
FIGURE 8. POPULATION TRENDS IN URBAN CENTERS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1936-1951

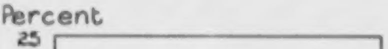


SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

While recognizing the limitations of this rough calculation, it is apparent that the rural population under 24 years of age has declined in each period and that the decline has been heaviest among older youth. Following one age group through the ten-year period, it can be seen that the numbers of those 10-14 years of age in 1941 had been reduced by some 32,000 in 1951 (the 20-24 year age group). This represents a net loss of 34 per cent from this age group for the province as a whole. The rural portion of this group declined by almost 50 per cent, while the urban portion increased.

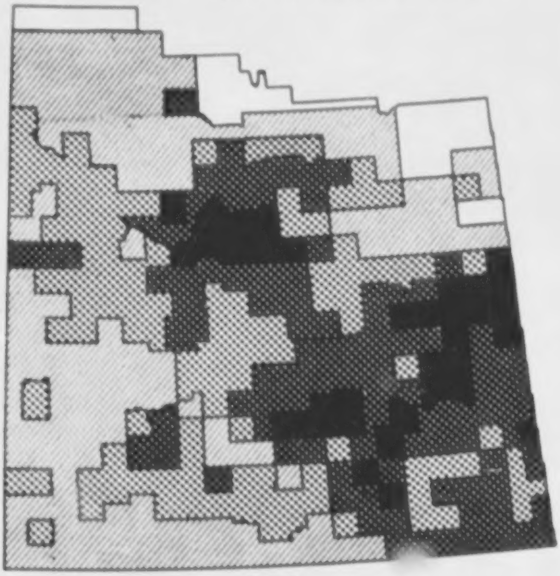
Since, by census definition, the rural population includes all population outside centers of 1,000 or over, it is obvious that most Saskatchewan towns and villages are included as rural population. Earlier

FIGURE 9. PERCENTAGE OF FARM OPERATORS NOT LIVING ON THEIR FARMS, BY PRAIRIE AND PARK REGIONS AND PROVINCE, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

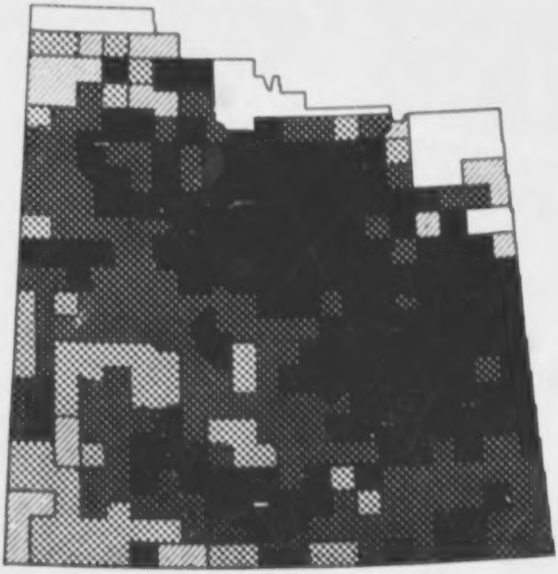


SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

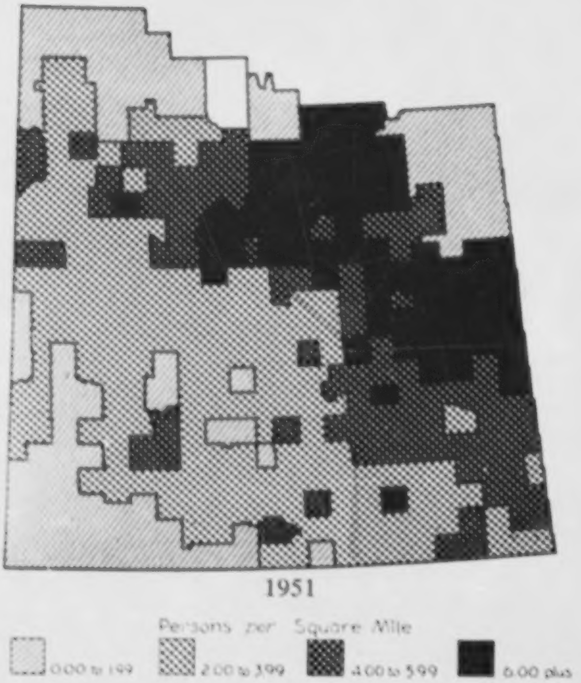
FIGURE 10. COMPARISON OF RURAL POPULATION DENSITIES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1911, 1931, AND 1951



1911



1931



1951

TABLE 6. NET RURAL-TO-URBAN MIGRATION OF SELECTED AGE GROUPS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-1951*

	1941			1946			1951		
Age Group	Rural	Rural as Per Cent of Total	Urban	Rural	Rural as Per Cent of Total	Urban	Rural	Rural as Per Cent of Total	Urban
0-4	71,110	83.7	13,843						
5-9	73,692	83.5	14,541	62,866	80.5	15,272			
10-14	78,159	82.4	16,731	63,009	80.1	15,634	56,358	76.5	17,257
15-19	77,248	80.5	18,761	61,983	76.6	18,691	49,202	71.8	19,280
20-24	64,598	75.9	20,499	53,311	71.2	21,510	40,072	64.0	22,541

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.
* Rural population includes farm and non-farm population located in centers under 1,000 population.

evidence showed that the population of centers of 300 to 1,000 increased substantially from 1941 to 1951. It follows from this that the movement of youth away from the farm has been even greater than is indicated in Table 6. It is reasonable to conclude that the majority have moved to urban centers either within or outside Saskatchewan to seek employment. The challenge to the rural educational system, therefore, is to prepare rural youth for urban occupations. In addition the large-scale shift of rural youth, following their education, to urban areas within and outside the province underlines the justification for broad provincial and federal financing of education.

Student population is, of course, an aspect of general population changes. The total school enrolment in Saskatchewan increased gradually from the time of settlement to a high of 230,735 in 1931-32 (Table 7). Since then, total enrolment declined to 171,402 in 1953-54. The sharp increase in enrolment in 1953-54 is partly explained by the increase in the number of school age children born during the post-war decade.

TABLE 7. SCHOOL ENROLMENT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-22 TO 1953-54

	Enrolment in Schools Operating Under:				
Year*	School Act	Secondary Education Act	Vocational Education Act	Government Correspondence School	Total† Enrolment
1921-22	178,314	5,627	—‡	—**	183,941
1926-27	211,599	6,961	—	130	218,560
1931-32	219,059	7,145	2,989	1,542	230,735
1936-37	204,829	7,840	2,935	1,337	216,941
1941-42	186,765	7,163	3,103	1,707	198,738
1946-47	160,168	7,164	2,997	2,724	173,053
1951-52	158,743	6,285	2,705	3,706	171,439
1952-53	152,113	6,440	2,579	4,315	165,447
1953-54	158,287	6,358	2,587	4,170	171,402

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Data are for year ending June 30.

† Enrolments in government aided schools, the Northern Area of Administration, and the School for the Deaf are excluded.

‡ Technical collegiates were established after 1927.

** The Government Correspondence School was organized in 1925.

Total school enrolments will probably increase further because of the large number of children of pre-school age. According to estimates, Saskatchewan had 217,882 persons between the ages of 5 and 18 in 1952 and will have approximately 280,000 in this age group by 1962. On the assumption that the same proportion of children in each age group will enroll in school in the next six years as enrolled in 1953 and without considering the effect of migration, it can be predicted that school enrolments will rise from about 175,000 in 1956 to 211,000 in 1962. Any measures that will increase the level of school attendance or increase the level of retention will, of course, increase this estimate.

Figure 11 shows the trend in enrolment in rural, village, town, and city schools administered under the School Act and the Northern Area of Administration. Figure 11 does not include high school students enrolled under the Secondary and Vocational School Acts or students in the Government Correspondence School, government aided and private schools, or the School for the Deaf. Nevertheless, it shows that rural enrolments have declined, while enrolments in all other types of schools have increased. The decline in rural enrolments, coupled with the prediction of increased total enrolments, indicates that village, town, and city schools will have to be prepared to accommodate increasing numbers of students.

Interrelationship Between Rural and Urban Life

Modifications in the organization of agricultural production and associated changes in farm income level and rural population have been important but not the only changes in the rural environment to have an impact on education. Large scale commercial farming together with the influence of the automobile has caused a change in the structure and organization of the rural community. The local neighbourhood group, once the core of rural life, has been supplemented—in many cases supplanted—by a variety of different interest groups organized on a larger area basis. The enlarged community has created a need to devise means whereby democratic processes can be maintained between levels of government and between the indiidual and all levels of formal organization. Education has been challenged to provide leadership in assisting individuals to understand the changing community so that people can adapt more centralized social and political organizations to their needs without sacrificing democratic values.

Closely associated with the trend towards a more complex rural society has been the growing interrelationship between rural and urban populations and cultures. The lower density of rural population and the increased costs of maintaining modern institutions have compelled farm families to seek commercial and social services in urban centers where specialized and high quality services can be supported by larger populations.[9]

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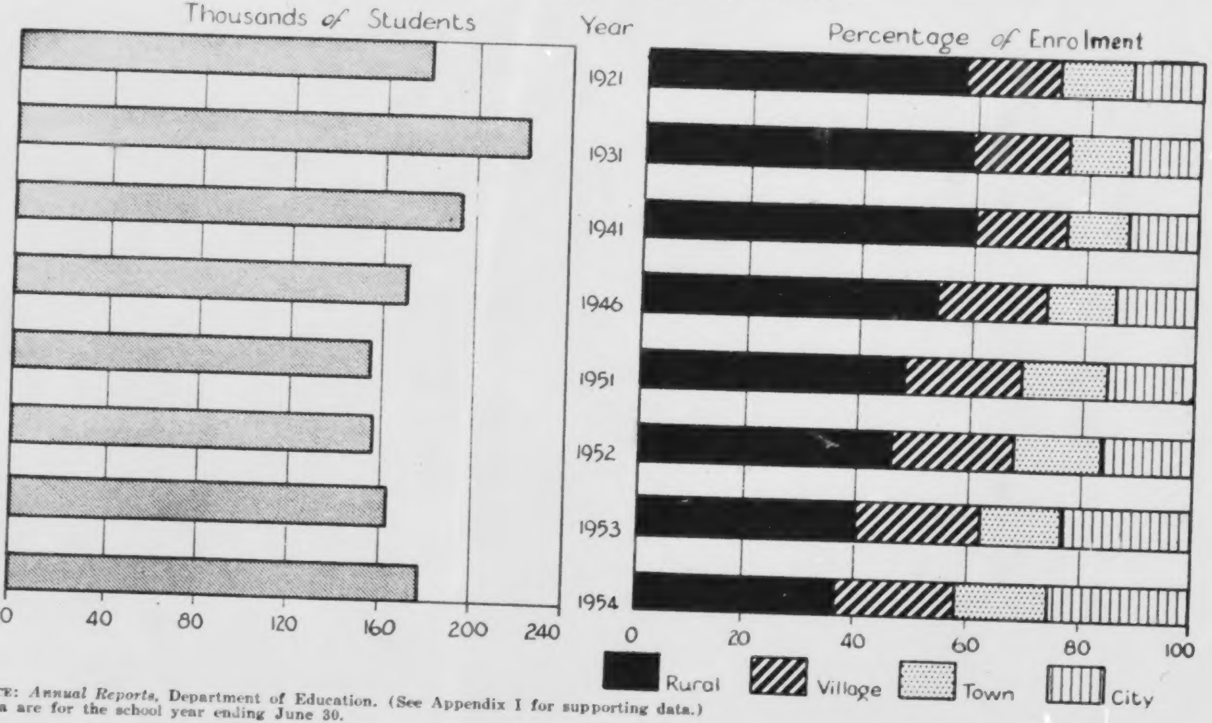
[9] For an analysis of where farm people go for various types of services, see the Commission's report on Service Centers.

FIGURE 11. TRENDS IN ENROLMENT IN SCHOOLS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT AND NORTHERN AREA OF ADMINISTRATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-1954*



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)
* Data are for the school year ending June 30.

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Increased contact of the farm population with urban people, urban institutions, and urban amenities of life, both material and cultural, have altered rural life. The acceleration of rural-urban contacts during a period of generally rising farm income increased the likelihood of achieving changes in rural life. Thus, it was within the realm of possibility for rural people to seek levels of living that approached urban levels of living. For instance, the comfort and efficiency of electrification could be achieved in rural as well as urban areas. Similarly, farm people in a period of general economic prosperity could realistically demand improved services of all types on a par with urban services.

For education, the impact of the increased interchange between rural and urban populations has been particularly strong. As rural people became more aware of the potentials of the educational system, they began to demand increased standards of education. This desire has been expressed in the formation of larger units of administration and regrouping of school facilities. Both measures involve increased administrative co-operation between rural and urban groups and operate to bring rural people the level of education heretofore available only in urban centers.

With decreased farm labour requirements, difficulty of obtaining farm land, greater knowledge of urban vocational opportunities, and the need for increased training for modern farming, farm youth required increased secondary schooling. Retention of urban youth in high schools is still much greater than retention of rural youth, but the significant number of farm families who move to town to secure educational facilities for their children bears witness to the importance farm families attach to satisfactory education.

Finally, contact with urban ways of life and cultural facilities has increased the demand for adult education for farm people. Although voluntary organizations perform this role to some extent, farm people are receptive potentially to more extensive adult education activities than are now provided.

These two forces—the changing organization of agricultural production, with its effects on farm income and rural population, and the growing inter-relationship of rural and urban populations—underlie all the trends in rural education. Although these changes in the rural environment have intensified problems in rural education, they have also opened the door to solutions that can improve rural education.

EDUCATIONAL ADJUSTMENTS

Adjustments in education have been deeply affected by changes in the rural environment. These trends may be observed in all aspects of rural education—in curriculum, facilities, personnel, organization, and financing.

Curriculum

Generally rising farm incomes and increased interdependence between rural and urban people and cultures have fostered a demand for higher standards of education and an expanded curriculum. Where facilities permit, new materials and methods are being introduced. Specialized classes in art, music, and physical education are being provided. The problem of retention of students has required scrutiny of the curriculum and adaptations to make schooling meaningful to rural youth.

In this connection, the need for vocational education has become more important to equip young people who remain in agriculture and those who migrate to urban centers. The modern farmer must be prepared to utilize technological developments in agriculture, to operate and maintain machinery, and to handle the commercial aspects of farming in a complex economic environment. Since many young farm people are not able to acquire sufficient land to enter farming, rural educators are concerned increasingly with preparing students for technical or professional work in urban centers.

Under the Vocational Education Act of 1919,[10] three technical collegiates have been established in the province — in Regina, Saskatoon, and Moose Jaw. Some vocational and technical classes are also offered at composite schools operating under the School Act. The development of composite schools in recent years has been aided by the Federal Department of Labour through the Vocational Assistance Agreement. Since 1945, 17 new composite schools have been built and 13 others extended. Thus, of a total of 40 schools providing some technical courses, 30 have been built or enlarged since 1945.[11]

The courses offered at composite schools are, of course, determined by the facilities available. Most composite schools offer courses in home economics, shop, and commercial subjects. Some schools, however, have only two of these electives, and a few have only one.

In addition to the establishment of composite schools, some units have undertaken programs of vocational instruction through the use of itinerant instructors. In 1953 four units offered some classes in home economics and shop work on an experimental basis. More recently vocational agricultural programs have been introduced experimentally in three units. In two of the units itinerant instruction has been used, primarily for out-of-school students; in the other, the course has been offered in the composite school.

Thus, the trend has been to include some vocational education in secondary schools, although the program as yet is limited.

With changes in the living habits of farm families—increased leisure time because of mechanization of farming and altered family relationships because of activities centered outside the home—the responsibility of the educational system to inculcate sound values, to stimulate interests, and to extend the intellectual resources of farm people has increased. The extension of adult education programs and the "lighted school" policy have made a modest contribution to increased technical skills and enriched cultural background of rural people.

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[10] Stats. of Sask., 1919-20, c. 42.

[11] See Appendix II for use made of Dominion-Provincial Vocation Schools' Assistance Agreement by technical and composite schools.

Finally, the enlargement of the farm community and the complexity of local services have tended to require that farm people be equipped to participate in community life. Thus, it is important that the school curriculum be changed to increase understanding of the democratic process and the role of local government in order to prepare rural youth for assuming civic responsibilities. Minor changes have been made in this direction.

Facilities

The trend in the provision of school facilities for elementary and secondary students can be described only in general terms. The steady decline in the number of operating one-room rural schools indicates that an increasing proportion of students is being accommodated at multiple-room central schools with improved facilities. Table 8 shows that the number of one-room rural schools closed increased from 212 in 1921-22 to 1,613 in 1953-54. Nevertheless, 500 one-room rural schools, each with fewer than 10 pupils, were operating in 1953-54. The number of school rooms devoted exclusively to high school instruction has been increasing. Exclusive of urban collegiates, there were 441 high school rooms in 1941-42, while in 1953-54 there

TABLE 8. ORGANIZED SCHOOL DISTRICTS CLASSIFIED AS OPERATING AND NON-OPERATING, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-22 TO 1953-54

Year*	Total School Districts	Operating		Non-Operating†	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1921-22	4,522	4,310	95.3	212	4.7
1926-27	4,745	4,548	95.8	197	4.2
1931-32	4,995	4,862	97.3	133	2.7
1936-37	5,146	4,917	95.5	229	4.5
1941-42	5,185	4,723	91.1	462	8.9
1946-47	5,192	4,398	84.7	794	15.3
1951-52	5,210	4,062	78.0	1,148	22.0
1952-53	5,216	3,909	75.0	1,307	25.0
1953-54	5,221	3,608	69.1	1,613	30.9

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Data are for year ending June 30.

† With one exception, each non-operating district represents a one-room rural school.

were 700 (Table 9). High school students previously accommodated in continuation rooms with a mixture of elementary and secondary students are now more generally accommodated in high school rooms.

Much of the improvement in facilities is the result of the financial and administrative resources of larger school units. The units have undertaken extensive building and repair programs. By the end of 1952, the larger school units had built 723 new schools comprising 1,086 new rooms and had added 273 new classrooms to existing facilities.[12] School repairs averaging $114,384 per school unit had been done by this date. These repairs included remodelling, painting, and installation of indoor toilets and improved heating systems.

The units have improved facilities other than school buildings as well. The average expenditure on libraries in the 48 units having library facilities was more than $2,000 in 1952. Units have made substantial investments in audio-visual aids — records, films, projectors, phonographs, radios, and pianos. Health services for students have also been expanded in the units. Hot lunches, immunization programs, medical examinations of pupils in conjunction with health regions, and improved sanitation have been provided in many units.

Increased centralization of school facilities has placed a premium on conveyance of students and satisfactory rural roads. The problem of providing transportation for rural students has created strong pressures for the integration of municipal government and school administration, a problem fully explored in the Commission's report on Rural Roads and Local Government.

TABLE 9. HIGH SCHOOL AND CONTINUATION ROOMS OPERATING UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1926-27 TO 1953-54

Year*	Number of High School Rooms	Number of Continuation Rooms†	Total
1926-27	194	241	435
1931-32	328	279	607
1936-37	387	313	700
1941-42	441	304	745
1946-47	504	323	827
1951-52	593	344	937
1952-53	632	311	943
1953-54	700	275	975

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.
* Data are for year ending June 30.
† Continuation rooms are those which provide for Grade VII and VIII, or Grade VIII, and all or part of the high school program.

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[12] *Larger School Units in Saskatchewan,* Bureau of Publications, Regina, 1953, p. 11.

Personnel

The shortage of qualified teachers, which had been a problem of early education in Saskatchewan, was overcome by the late 1920's. Through the depression years of the 1930's, the supply of teachers exceeded the number of teaching positions. Shortly after the beginning of World War II, the supply of available teachers began to decrease, and in 1942 the Department of Education began a program of allowing partially trained teachers to staff the classrooms. Various measures were undertaken to staff each classroom with at least a partially trained teacher, but eventually the demand exceeded the supply and in 1946-47 study supervisors were placed in service. Study supervisors are usually high school students or graduates with no teacher training. Their duty is to maintain discipline in the classroom and supervise correspondence lessons sent by the Department of Education.

The shortage of qualified teachers has continued to plague educational authorities despite substantial progress in maintaining and improving the quality of teaching. Although the number of study supervisors increased from 1946 to 1953,[11] the number of trained teachers with improved qualifications also increased. Table 10 gives the number

TABLE 10. NUMBER AND PROPORTION OF TEACHERS NOT QUALIFIED, AND NUMBER AND PROPORTION OF TEACHERS WITH TWO OR MORE YEARS OF TRAINING, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945-46 TO 1953-54

Year	Total Number of Teachers*	Number of Study Supervisors†	Number With Less Than Second Class Certificate	Per Cent Unqualified	Number With Two Years Minimum Training	Per Cent With Two Years Training
1945-46	6,867	—	1,562	22.7	970	14.1
1946-47	7,480	40	570	8.1	1,058	14.1
1947-48	9,264	80	1,226	14.1	1,466	15.8
1948-49	7,411	235	1,234	19.8	1,417	19.1
1949-50	7,725	449	505	12.3	1,616	20.9
1950-51	7,285	474	370	11.6	1,668	22.9
1951-52	9,044	526	267	8.8	2,086	23.1
1952-53	8,869	609	236	9.5	2,252	25.4
1953-54	8,775	524	241	8.7	2,207	25.1

SOURCE: *Annual Reports* and unpublished data, Department of Education.

* This total includes study supervisors and teachers with less than second class certificates.

† Figures for 1945-46 to 1949-50 are the actual numbers of study supervisors employed. Figures for 1950-51 to 1953-54 represent the number of classrooms served by supervisors. Sometimes more than one supervisor was employed to service one classroom. Consequently these latter figures are less than the total number of supervisors employed but give a more accurate picture of the situation.

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[11] The number of study supervisors in service declined to 524 in 1953-54, to 250 by January, 1955, and to 133 by the fall term of 1955.

and proportion of teachers (including study supervisors) with less than second class certificates and also gives the number and proportion of teachers with two years training or more for the period 1945-1954.

Although the proportion of teachers not qualified for certification has been declining since 1948-49, in 1953-54 there were still 765 teaching positions held by unqualified staff. These figures, moreover, reflect neither the substantial numbers of married women who are continuing to teach at some sacrifice to themselves and their families nor the number of teachers who might have taken advantage of their superannuation rights if the demand for teachers had not been so high. Nor do these figures reveal the number of schools closed because of the lack of qualified teachers.

The shortage of qualified teachers affects the whole character of the educational system. It is a limiting factor on the quantity and quality of graduates. Where no qualified teacher is available, the students are obliged to use correspondence courses, and in some instances even qualified teachers have been reluctant to instruct high school grades in the rural schools.

A direct effect of the teacher shortage has been increased demand for the services of the Government Correspondence School. First established in 1925 as a means of aiding those students who could not attend regularly operated schools, the Government Correspondence School offers two types of courses—Type A courses for study without local supervision and Type B for use under the supervision of a local teacher.[11]

Since 1941, the number of elementary students taking Type A courses has declined yearly with the exception of a few years (Table 11). The number of elementary students taking Type B courses varied between 320 and 400 until 1947-48, when the number increased substantially. The number increased from 1,257 in 1947-48 to more than 8,800 in 1952-53. This increase in Type B enrolments coincided with the sharp increase in the number of study supervisors employed. When more trained teachers were available and fewer study supervisors were employed (1953-54), the number of elementary students enrolled in Type B courses declined.

High school enrolments in correspondence courses are shown in Table 12. The number of students taking Type A courses without a teacher increased from 1,107 in 1941-42 to 4,006 in 1952-53, with a decline to 3,862 in 1953-54. Because of the teacher shortage, it has been difficult to find teachers who would teach high school grades in rural schools. Therefore, students who could have used Type B courses were using Type A courses. Of the students enrolled in Type A courses

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[11] The Type A course provides complete teaching for students enrolled in Grades I to XII. Lessons, instruction, and correction of work are furnished, and the students work without any local supervision. The Type B course provides outlines for each subject to be used as reference material by students enrolled in schools under the supervision of a local teacher or study supervisor. The Type B reference service is also available to all teachers in the province. Correspondence courses are available for all subjects in the elementary grades and for 50 subjects in Grade IX to XII for Type A students.

TABLE 11. ENROLMENTS FOR ELEMENTARY (GRADES I TO VIII) CORRESPONDENCE COURSES AND EMPLOYMENT OF STUDY SUPERVISORS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1926-27 TO 1953-54

Year*	Elementary Correspondence Courses			Number of Study Supervisors†
	Type A	Type B	Total	
1926-27	130	*Nil*	130	—
1931-32	693	223	916	—
1936-37	758	348	1,106	—
1941-42	600	321	921	—
1946-47	520	399	919	40
1947-48	818	1,257	2,075	80
1948-49	498	3,636	4,134	235
1949-50	312	6,272	6,584	449
1950-51	347	6,750	7,097	474
1951-52	375	7,497	7,872	526
1952-53	309	8,818	9,127	609
1953-54	308	7,737	8,045	524

SOURCE: *Annual Reports* and records, Department of Education.

* Data are for year ending June 30.

† Employment of study supervisors commenced in 1946-47. See footnote to Table 10.

TABLE 12. STUDENTS TAKING HIGH SCHOOL COURSES AND NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE USING CORRESPONDENCE COURSES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1926-27 TO 1953-54

Year*	Number of High School Students	Students Taking High School Correspondence Courses			Per Cent of Total High School Students
		Type A	Type B	Total Number	
1926-27	20,118	Nil	Nil	Nil	—
1931-32	33,131	849	8,213	9,062	27
1936-37	36,077	579	7,935	8,514	24
1941-42	35,608	1,107	8,083	9,190	26
1946-47	33,769	2,204	7,354	9,558	28
1947-48	32,708	1,834	5,670	7,504	23
1948-49	31,649	2,280	4,882	7,162	23
1949-50	31,571	2,745	3,841	6,586	21
1950-51	32,194	3,053	3,980	7,033	22
1951-52	32,274	3,331	3,827	7,158	22
1952-53	32,223	4,006	3,846	7,852	24
1953-54	32,722	3,862	2,750	6,612	20

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Data are for school year ending June 30.

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in 1952-53, 63 per cent were actually attending school.[15] The increase in enrolments in Type A courses may also be explained by the closing of some schools. Enrolments in other schools have been so increased that teachers have had no time to assist high school students who might otherwise use the Type B service. The number of students taking Type B courses with a teacher's supervision declined sharply after 1946-47.

The increase in the use of Type A correspondence courses for high school students is attributable in part to the higher level of retention of students to Grade IX. Between 1943 and 1952, the number of Grade VI students who continued to Grade IX had increased ten per cent. Not merely are more students going to high school, but increasing proportions of all Grade IX and X students have been enrolled in Type A courses. In the last four years, the proportions of Grade XI and XII students enrolled in correspondence courses have increased as well (Table 13). Since under the School Act, the board of a school with only one teacher is not required to provide instruction beyond Grade X and the Minister of Education may at his discretion exempt a board from providing high school instruction entirely, the recourse fot many high school students is to enroll in correspondence courses.

The correspondence school has provided an important service in assuring education for numerous students, but it cannot by its very nature provide the level of education that is possible through day-to-day interchange with qualified teachers and other students. The fact that 20 per cent of all high school students were studying one or more subjects by correspondence in 1954 is a reflection of the teacher shortage and the lack of sufficient high school facilities of high standard.

Organization of Rural Education

Economic and social changes in the rural environment have led to two major trends in the organization of rural education: (1) the regrouping of educational facilities on the basis of larger attendance areas and (2) the development of larger school units to provide adequate and equitable taxation and more efficient administration.

Regrouping of Educational Facilities

Regrouping of school facilities has been expressed in the closing of a large number of rural schools, the conveyance of students within larger attendance areas, and increased enrolment in central schools.

The number of school districts has increased consistently since 1921 to the 1954 total of 5,221. Since 1936-37, however, the number operating has declined steadily. Some school districts are completely inactive—the school is closed, and no children from the school district attend school. In other districts the school may be closed, but the school district is active in that it conveys children to school. As early as 1921, about 5 per cent of the school districts were not operating; by

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[15] Although similar statistics are not gathered annually, the Correspondence School Administration estimates that in nearly all recent years about 60 per cent of students taking Type A courses have done so while attending school.

TABLE 13. TOTAL HIGH SCHOOL ENROLMENT BY GRADES, AND NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE USING TYPE A CORRESPONDENCE COURSES,* SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-42 TO 1953-54

Year†	Number of High School Students	Grade IX			Grade X			Grade XI			Grade XII		
		Total Enrol-ment	Correspondence		Total Enrol-ment	Correspondence		Total Enrol-ment	Correspondence		Total Enrol-ment	Correspondence	
			No.	Per Cent of Total		No.	Per Cent of Total		No.	Per Cent of Total		No.	Per Cent of Total
1941-42	35,608	12,557	182	1.4	9,302	118	1.3	8,030	519	6.5	5,719	288	5.0
1946-47	33,769	11,884	807	6.8	9,119	381	4.2	7,266	610	8.4	5,500	406	7.4
1947-48	32,708	11,316	680	6.0	8,619	427	5.0	7,443	425	5.7	5,330	302	5.7
1948-49	31,649	11,589	918	7.9	8,377	596	7.1	6,772	481	7.1	4,911	285	5.8
1949-50	31,571	11,895	1,208	10.2	8,619	755	8.8	6,249	406	6.5	4,808	376	7.8
1950-51	32,194	12,052	1,289	10.7	8,802	736	8.4	6,597	543	8.2	4,743	485	10.2
1951-52	32,274	12,199	1,266	10.4	8,733	841	9.6	6,604	647	9.8	4,738	577	12.2
1952-53	32,223	12,059	1,520	12.6	8,749	1,039	11.9	6,674	796	11.9	4,741	651	13.7
1953-54	32,722	12,257	1,511	12.3	8,946	926	10.4	6,633	726	10.9	4,886	699	14.3

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Each enrollee is counted as a correspondence school student whether he is enrolled for a single subject or a number of subjects.
† Data are for year ending June 30.

1954, 31 per cent of the school districts were not operating. Table 8 showed the number and percentage of organized and operating districts over the past 30 years.

The trend towards the closing of rural schools and conveying of pupils has not been uniform throughout the province. In the prairie region, (28 units) where farms are larger and mechanization further advanced than in the park region, 54 per cent of the rural schools had been closed by 1954, while in the park region (22 units) only 14 per cent had been closed.

Larger attendance areas are areas in which a central school district provides facilities for students from two or more neighbouring districts. In 1953-54, there were 259 larger attendance areas in Saskatchewan.[16] These attendance areas, 25 of which have rural schools as their centers, served 817 districts and utilized 434 bus routes for the conveyance of 8,713 students. In addition to these districts, 320 other districts by 1954 had closed their schools and were conveying students privately to other schools. Approximately 85 per cent of the districts with closed schools convey students to central schools. If it can be assumed that all transported students are rural students, approximately 12 per cent of rural students were conveyed to school. The central schools in the larger attendance areas are multiple-room schools in central rural locations, hamlets, villages, or towns.

Students have been conveyed to school in some districts and areas since shortly after the province was established. The early *Annual Reports* of the Department of Education describe the horse-drawn vans heated by oil stoves or footwarmers and the problems faced by the settlers in the conveyance of students. In 1921, 88 school districts were conveying students, and by 1954, 1,451 districts were conveying students.

Full statistics on the number of districts that conveyed yearly are not readily available. A review of government grants for conveying, however, indicates the trend in the use of school transportation (Table 14). In 1929-30, government grants to aid conveyance totalled $69,300. By 1953-54, conveyance grants were nearly five times as much, or $330,900. Since the number of consolidated districts has remained fairly stationary, a large part of the increase in conveyance grants is a reflection of increased conveyance in non-consolidated districts.

With the decrease in number of operating school districts and the increase in conveyance, enrolments in central schools are increasing. Figure 11 showed that rural enrolments have decreased significantly while urban enrolments have increased. Since school attendance is compulsory until completion of Grade VIII or attainment of age 15, school authorities are required to provide accessible facilities for elementary students. The same pressures do not exist for the provision of high school facilities, since fewer students continue through high school.

High school facilities are provided in three ways: (1) by secondary and vocational school districts in urban centers, (2) by school districts under the School Act that operate exclusive continuation or high school rooms, and (3) by other schools, largely one-room rural schools with some Grade IX and X students. The number of secondary school districts declined from 21 in 1923-24 to 13 in 1953-54. The number of school districts under the School Act that operate continuation or high school rooms increased from 233 in 1923-24 to 596 in 1949-50, and has since levelled off at 592. The number of rural schools with high school enrolment declined by more than 1,400 from a peak of 3,329 in 1936-37 to 1,900 in 1951-52 (Table 15). The number of operating school districts with high school enrolment declined by 1,366 from 1936-37 to 1951-52. One reason for this decline is that 919 schools were closed during the same period (cf. Table 8).

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[16] This total excludes consideration of the Humboldt, Kamsack, Melville, Moosomin, Tisdale, Yorkton and Wakaw Units and the unorganized superintendencies, since no information was received on conveyance, if any, in these areas.

Although high schooling can thus be obtained at fewer locations, the number of rooms available for high school teaching has increased by 540 from 1926-27 to 1953-54 (cf. Table 9). The trend towards centralization of high school facilities is clear; more high school rooms are being provided by fewer school districts in central locations.

In summary, the process of closing rural schools and regrouping educational facilities has dominated the structure of rural education in recent years and, in the majority of cases, will have a permanent effect on the structure and organization of the rural community. Today schools in approximately 31 per cent of all districts organized under the School Act are closed, and students from non-operating districts have been accommodated in approximately 260 larger attendance areas. The process has been more accentuated in the prairie region of the province than in the park region, which undoubtedly reflects the greater adjustment in farm size and increased mechanization of the prairie region. Facilities at which high school may be obtained have decreased more than

TABLE 14. GOVERNMENT GRANTS FOR CONVEYANCE OF STUDENTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1924-25 TO 1953-54

Year	Grants for Consolidated School Districts	Grants for Closed School Districts	Total Grants
	Dollars		
1924-25	44,600	12,900	57,500
1929-30	59,200	10,100	69,300
1934-35	22,600	3,600	26,200
1941-42	28,600	25,900	54,500
1946-47	33,500	72,900	106,400
1951-52	52,700	141,800	194,500
1952-53	63,000	202,800	265,800
1953-54	64,400	266,500	330,900

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

TABLE 15. SCHOOL DISTRICTS WITH STUDENTS IN HIGH SCHOOL GRADES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1923-24 TO 1953-54

Year*	Total	School Districts Under the School Act		School Districts Under the Secondary Education Act
		With Continuation and/or High School Rooms	Rural Districts with High School Enrolment	
1923-24	1,098	233	844	21
1926-27	1,896	321	1,556	19
1931-32	3,558	447	3,093	18
1936-37	3,872	525	3,329	18
1941-42	3,669	534	3,118	17
1946-47	3,137	576	2,544	17
1947-48	3,009	583	2,411	15
1948-49	2,877	585	2,277	15
1949-50	2,810	596	2,200	14
1950-51	2,661	592	2,055	14
1951-52	2,506	592	1,900	14
1952-53	—†	—†	—†	14
1953-54	—†	—†	—†	13

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Data are for school year ending June 30.

† Data not available.

is represented by the decline in the number of operating schools. Over the past 15 years, rural districts with high school enrolments have declined by about 1,400. To offset this decline, the number of districts operating continuation or high school rooms has increased slightly. High school rooms, exclusive of schools under the Secondary School Act, have increased by 540 in the last 17 years. High school facilities are thus being centralized in more high school rooms provided by fewer school districts.

Development of Larger Units of Administration

The original rural school districts, the length or breadth of which were not to exceed five miles, were designed to include a specified amount of land and a minimum number of pupils. Each district was to be an adequate attendance area for elementary students. High schooling, particularly in the senior years, was not offered at the one-room rural schools. Students generally attended high school in urban centers, although attendance areas for high school students were not rigidly defined.

Each rural school district was administered by an elected board of three local trustees. Those few school districts without a local board of trustees were administered by a trustee appointed by the Department of Education. The board of the school district was empowered to levy taxes in the district to finance education. These taxes were collected by the rural municipalities. Each school district thus operated as a separate attendance area and a separate taxing and administrative unit, independent of other school districts and, except for tax collection, independent of other local government agencies.

With this structure, the rural school developed as the ideal of local democracy. Neighbourhood co-operation through pooling of resources, both moral and financial, was the lifeblood of the school, and people guarded jealously the system which appeared to represent the essence of a functioning democracy.

Shortly after the province was formed, however, the population began to adjust to the land, and some school districts found themselves without sufficient students to qualify for full provincial grants. Since these school districts were unable to provide satisfactory education, legislation in 1912 authorized consolidation of school districts. Today, schools in 31 per cent of school districts have been closed. The individual school district in many areas today is too small to provide an adequate attendance area.

At the same time, school districts became inadequate as taxing areas to meet the needs of modern education. Not only are higher standards of education expensive, but throughout the province school buildings neglected during the depression had to be improved. The decline in rural population has made the retention of a rural school for a minimum number of pupils uneconomical. Finally, inequalities in financial burden among school districts frequently meant inequalities in educational opportunity. Closed school districts were able to waive school taxes, placing a greater financial burden on operating districts. Steps were needed to increase and equalize the tax base for rural education.

Reform of the tax base of rural school districts was delayed for numerous reasons, among which was the high value that rural people placed on local autonomy. With the evolution of a larger community within which rural people associated for trade, services, and social life, however, neighbourhood independence could no longer be retained. High school students for years had enrolled in schools in urban centers. The closing of elementary schools and the conveying of pupils across school district boundaries had lessened the rigidity of independent school administrations. Without any central co-ordinating agency, the revision of administrative and attendance areas would be made in a haphazard way, and the need for a planned system of school administration, with adequate taxing and administrative powers, became increasingly urgent.

Throughout the years, various attempts were made to alleviate the strain caused by the retention of the one-room rural school districts as independent administrative and attendance areas. Legislation for consolidated districts and assistance for conveying recognized the inadequacy of rigid attendance areas. The inadequacy of the school districts as taxing areas compelled the provision of limited equalization grants in 1939. Finally, in 1944, legislation provided for the establishment of larger units of school administration to provide administrative and financing authority over a much larger area than the rural school district.[17] The larger units were not designed to alter attendance areas; but as changes became necessary, the units, with their broader jurisdiction and administrative powers, were able to facilitate a transition to larger attendance areas.

Provision was made for the establishment of 60 larger units, 14 of which were established in 1944. To date, 56 units have been established. Table 16 indicates the number of larger school units established each year from 1944 to 1953.

TABLE 16. ESTABLISHMENT OF LARGER SCHOOL UNITS IN SASKATCHEWAN, 1944-1953

Year	Number of Units Established
1944	14
1945	21
1946	10
1949	2
1950	1
1951	1
1952	5
1953	2
Total	56

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

The Larger School Units Act at first stipulated that units contain rural and village school districts but made provision for inclusion by agreement of town, consolidated, and separate school districts. Since 1949, however, all new units formed have included towns of under 2,000 population, but any town, irrespective of size, may be included in a unit by agreement. Of the town school districts, 65 are in larger units, and 12 are in areas not organized into units. The remaining 22 are individual administrative districts but are related to the units in that they provide facilities for out-of-district students. Some town districts and larger units have formal agreements pertaining to financing, building, and instruction. Thus, the larger school units have facilitated closer integration of rural and urban school facilities, particularly high school facilities.

Although the larger units have done much to alleviate the problems inherent in the small district system, recent adjustments in population and the closing of additional schools have created further problems for school administration. Recent legislation permits the formation of central boards to provide avenues of participation by ratepayers in a larger attendance area. Under the original legislation, central boards were made up of the chairman of the board of the central school and the chairmen of the local boards in the attendance area. Now, on approval of the Minister of Education, central boards may be established according to any pattern of representation. Central boards have the same duties and powers of administration and supervision as other school boards except that they lack the power to elect delegates to the sub-unit or to the larger unit board. They are designed to give representation in the affairs of the central school to all ratepayers in the larger attendance area. Another administrative innovation has occurred in the west central zone of the province. There a union of larger units has been established for the purpose of effecting economies in the building of schools.

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[17] The Larger School Units Act, Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41.

In summary, rural educational administration has been faced continually with problems created by an ever-changing rural environment. The establishment of larger school units enlarged administrative and taxing areas. Although the larger units were at first committed to retain the one-room rural school districts as individual attendance areas, subsequent adjustments in the rural environment necessitated revision of attendance areas. In recognition of the growing interdependence of rural and town or village districts for the purpose of providing secondary schooling, larger units include all village districts and a majority of town districts. To facilitate local control of centralized schools, provision has been made for the establishment of central boards composed of representatives from the districts included in the attendance area. The recent establishment of the West Central Zone Chairmen Board, composed of unit board chairmen, represents an enlargement of the administrative area to achieve economies in the building of facilities.

Financing

Trends in educational financing are fundamental to all aspects of education, for financing affects curriculum, facilities, personnel, and organization. Education is first viewed as a public expenditure in the total economy and in the economy of local government. After consideration of education in relation to other social costs, educational financing is analysed internally and the trends in expenditures and revenues summarized.

Education as a Public Expenditure

The people of the province, through local government and the Provincial Government, spend approximately $40 million per year on education. Total expenditures for education from 1926-27 to 1953-54 are shown in Table 17. Expenditures for education declined from $15 million in 1926-27 to $12 million in 1941-42, when many rural schools were being closed, and rose to almost $41 million in 1953-54. The increase in costs through the years reflects, in addition to normal increases, the provision of new and improved educational services—the development of Teachers Colleges, technical schools, composite schools, and the University of Saskatchewan.

While educational costs have almost tripled in the years from 1926 to 1953, per capita costs of education declined from 1926 to 1936 and rose sharply after 1941 (Figure 12). The decline in provincial population from 896,000 in 1941 to 861,000 in 1953 contributed to the increase in annual per capita costs of education from $14 in 1941-42 to $47 in 1953-54. The decline in student population likewise has raised the cost of education per student. Table 18 shows expenditures per student for all schools in the years 1926-27 to 1953-54. In this period, total school enrolment declined by 47,158 or 21.6 per cent. A declining student population and increasing total costs have increased the cost of education per student four times in this period.

Although the per capita costs of education have increased, the cost of education relative to personal income has remained relatively stable since 1926, except for the depression years (Figure 12). The rise in the general level of income since 1941, however, has exceeded rising educational costs.

TABLE 17. EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1926-27 TO 1953-54

Year	Expenditures by School Districts			Expenditures by Provincial Government	Total	Index (1946=100)
	Payments*	Payments from Debentures	Total†			
	Thousands of dollars					
1926-27	—	—	11,805	3,387	15,192	78
1931-32	—	—	9,871	4,462	14,333	73
1936-37	—	—	6,679	2,983	9,662	49
1941-42	—	—	7,799	4,432	12,231	62
1946-47‡	13,009	194	13,203	6,394	19,597	100
1951-52‡	19,418	778	20,196	10,973	31,169	159
1952-53‡	21,460	1,240	22,701	12,919	35,620	182
1953-54‡	25,622	1,070	26,691	14,082	40,773	208

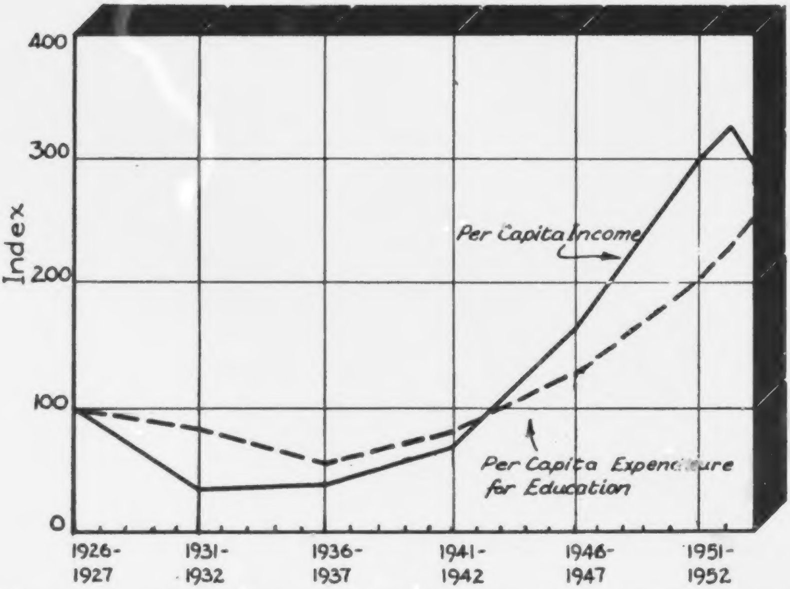
SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education and *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

* Excludes payments from money received from the sale of debentures.

† Total school district expenditures represent the gross payments of all school districts less annual debits and credits and less government grants. Repayments of bank loans or notes also are deducted since the monies involved are already shown as payments for other purposes. The totals for 1926-27 to 1941-42 also exclude repayment of debentures by secondary school districts. However, for all other districts and for all other years repayment of debentures and normal debt charges are included.

‡ For all years, total expenditures include monies expended from debenture receipts; debenture repayments in subsequent years represent duplication of these expenditures. For the most recent four years analysed, the expenditures from debenture receipts are also shown separately, thus indicating amounts which may be duplicated by debenture repayments.

FIGURE 12. COMPARISON OF INDEXES OF PER CAPITA INCOME AND PER CAPITA EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1926-27 TO 1953-54
(1926-27 = 100)



SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, *National Accounts Income and Expenditure*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics; *Annual Reports*, Department of Education; and *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

TABLE 18. EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES PER STUDENT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1926-27 TO 1953-54

Year	Total Educational Expenditures	Enrolment	Expenditures per Student: Amount	Expenditures per Student: Index (1946=100)
	$000's		$	
1926-27	15,192	218,560	70	61
1931-32	14,333	230,735	62	54
1936-37	9,662	216,941	44	39
1941-42	12,231	198,738	61	54
1946-47	19,597	173,053	113	100
1951-52	31,169	171,439	182	161
1952-53	35,620	165,447	215	190
1953-54	40,773	171,402	279	247

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

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Provincial disbursements for education have increased as have government expenditures for all services in the postwar years. As a proportion of total provincial expenditures, however, expenditures for education have declined slightly from 1941 to 1953. Table 19 shows that education as a proportion of total provincial expenditures rose from 14.5 per cent in 1941-42 to a high of 17.5 per cent in 1949-50 and declined to 13.4 per cent in 1953-54. Thus, other services have claimed a priority in the allocation of provincial resources generally higher than education in the period 1950-1953.

The role of education in the budget of rural local government is presented in Figure 13. Figure 13 shows that the proportions of total expenditures of rural municipalities devoted to education has risen less than the proportion devoted to public works. Thus, in 1944 education represented 41.2 per cent of total rural municipal expenditures and rose to 46.3 per cent in 1953. Public works, however, increased from 20.7 per cent of total expenditures in 1944 to 26.8 per cent in 1953. Despite rising educational costs, expenditures for public works have risen proportionately more in the budget of rural local government than expenditures for education. The choice has thus been made to give a slightly higher priority to roads and public works in the allocation of local resources than to education in the ten-year period between 1944 and 1953.

Expenditures for Education

Expenditures for education are composed of operating and non-

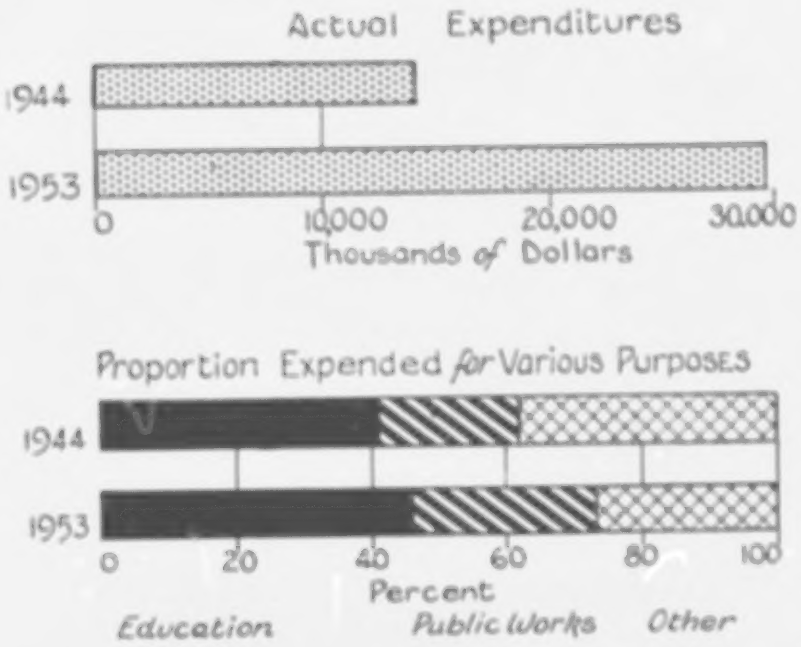
TABLE 19. PROVINCIAL EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION AS PROPORTION OF TOTAL PROVINCIAL EXPENDITURES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-42 TO 1953-54

Year	Total Provincial Net Disbursements*	Expenditures for Education	
		Amount	Per Cent of Total
	$000's	$000's	%
1941-42	30,627	4,432	14.5
1945-46	34,515	5,591	16.2
1949-50	61,938	10,815	17.5
1951-52	78,652	10,973	14.0
1952-53	92,013	12,919	14.0
1953-54	105,226	14,082	13.4

SOURCE: *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

* Net disbursements are made up of current government expenditures, plus capital borrowings less capital repayments during the year.

FIGURE 13. EDUCATION, PUBLIC WORKS, AND OTHER EXPENDITURES AS PROPORTION OF TOTAL RURAL MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1944 AND 1953



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

operating expenses.[13] To obtain a picture of the trends in expenditures for education, the proportion of funds allocated to operating and non-operating expenses over the years is first reviewed, and then the operating budget of the school system is analysed.

Figure 14 compares expenditures of all school districts for 1945, 1949, and 1953, classified according to operating payments, non-operating payments, and capital expenditures from operating receipts.[14] Operating expenses doubled and non-operating expenses (primarily

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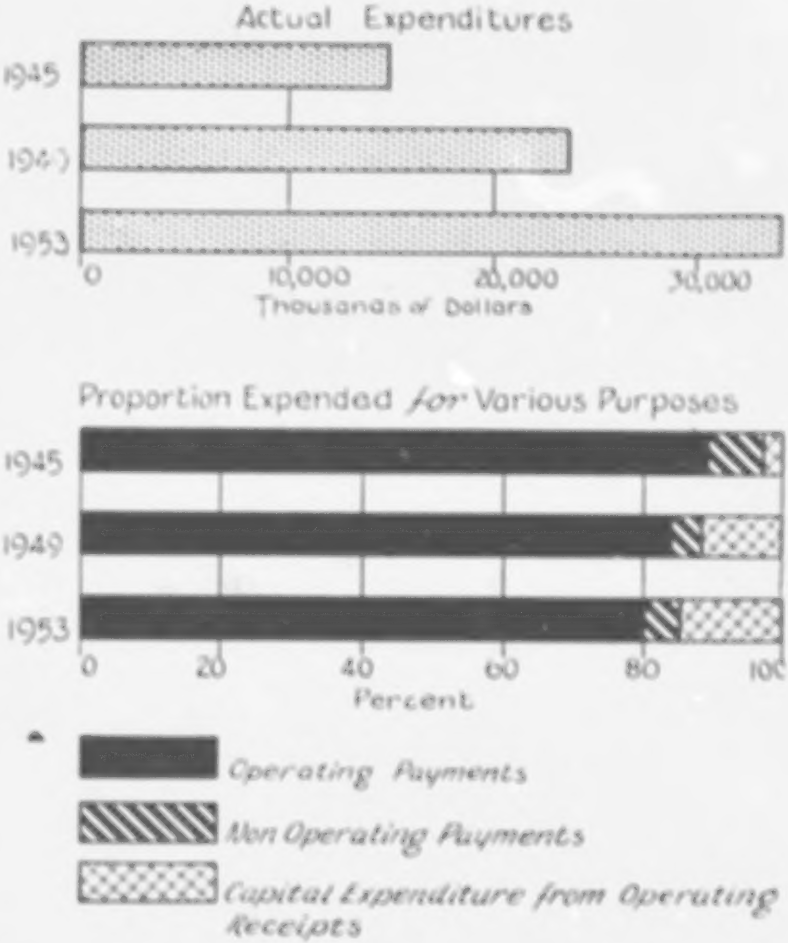
[13] Operating payments include expenditures for administration, instruction, plant operation and maintenance, fees, conveyance, auxiliary services, capital expenditures from operating or current receipts, and debt charges. Non-operating payments include primarily the repayment of loans and debentures incurred for capital investment.

[14] Since school districts are authorized to finance expenditures from current revenue, capital expenditures have been subtracted from operating payments and itemized separately for each year.

FIGURE 14. EXPENDITURES OF ALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945, 1949, AND 1953



SOURCE: Annual Reports, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

capital expenditures from debenture receipts) increased by 70 per cent between 1945 and 1953. The increase in expenditures for capital investment from operating receipts from 3 per cent of total expenditures in 1945 to 15 per cent in 1953 reflects the willingness of ratepayers to assume immediate responsibility for capital improvements. Although operating expenses have increased, non-operating expenses including capital expenditures have increased relatively more, reflecting the high capital cost of centralizing school facilities.

Within the operating budget of the school system not all items have increased in cost equally. Table 20 compares expenditures in 1946 for each item in the operating budget of all school districts with expenditures for these items in 1953. As indicated above, total operating costs more than doubled in this period, but certain expenditures—for conveyance, auxiliary services, and capital expenditures from current revenue—increased even more. For example, capital expenditures from operating receipts in 1953 were five times those of 1946. These increases in operating expenditures reflect the high capital costs of conveyance equipment and the improvement of school facilities associated with centralization.

Although the trend in recent years has been towards using more operating receipts for capital investment, it has not been possible to finance total capital requirements from current revenue. In fact, the proportion of capital expenditures financed from operating receipts has been declining since 1947, as is shown in Table 21. Between 1945 and 1953, a total of nearly $29 million was spent on capital investments, $23 million of which came from operating receipts.

These trends in educational expenditures in the postwar years are closely associated with the regroup-

TABLE 20. COMPARISON OF THE COMPONENTS OF OPERATING EXPENDITURES IN ALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN SASKATCHEWAN, 1946 AND 1953*

Type of Expenditure	1946 Expenditures		1953 Expenditures		Percentage Increase 1953 Over 1946
	Amount	Per Cent of Total	Amount	Per Cent of Total	
	$	%	$	%	%
Administration	553,276	3.5	992,559	3.1	79.4
Instruction	9,732,540	61.4	17,878,373	55.4	83.7
Plant operation and maintenance	3,175,792	20.0	5,170,906	16.0	62.8
Fees	65,906	.4	81,458	.3	23.6
Conveyance	421,124	2.6	1,105,128	3.4	162.4
Auxiliary services†	251,508	1.6	647,299	2.0	157.4
Capital from operating receipts	984,946	6.2	5,020,909	15.6	409.2
Debt charges	672,440	4.3	1,354,265	4.2	101.4
Total	15,858,532	100.0	32,250,917	100.0	103.4

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Government aided schools and districts in the Northern Area of Administration are excluded.

† Auxiliary services include such items as hot lunches, medical and health services, music, drama, concerts and parades.

TABLE 21. SOURCE OF FUNDS FOR CAPITAL EXPENDITURES FOR ALL SCHOOLS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945-1953*

Year	Total Capital Expenditures	From Operating Receipts		From Sale of Debentures	
	Amount	Amount	Per Cent of Total	Amount	Per Cent of Total
	$	$	%	$	%
1945	565,848	479,849	84.8	85,999	15.2
1946	1,180,137	985,947	83.5	194,190	16.5
1947	1,921,467	1,831,772	95.3	89,695	4.7
1948	2,613,889	2,146,471	82.1	467,418	17.9
1949	3,285,349	2,564,383	78.1	720,966	21.9
1950	4,229,806	3,378,070	79.9	851,736	20.1
1951	3,743,520	2,965,182	79.2	778,338	20.8
1952	5,026,605	3,786,179	75.3	1,240,426	24.7
1953	6,090,424	5,020,909	82.4	1,069,515	17.6
Total 1945-1953	28,857,045	23,158,762	81.0	5,498,283	19.1

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.
*Government aided schools and districts in the Northern Area of Administration have been excluded from this calculation.

ing of school facilities. The increasing proportion of total expenditures allocated to non-operating expenses, the increasing proportion of operating expenses attributed to items associated with centralization, the increasing use of current revenue to finance capital investment are financial reflections of the transition to centralized schools. Although substantial capital investment would have been required to restore school facilities neglected during the depression and World War II, the trend in the allocation of financial resources towards long-term capital investment must be attributed to the vast changes in process in the system of rural education.

Revenues for Education

All revenues for education are derived from taxation. Only about half of school revenue, however, is secured annually through direct local taxes. The rest comes from provincial and, in some small part, from federal grants as well as from loans or the sale of debentures. Formerly, the greater part of educational receipts were derived from local taxes and government grants, but in recent years loans have increased in importance in the financing of education. Table 22 shows the sources of annual receipts for school districts organized under the School Act for selected years from

TABLE 22. RECEIPTS FOR SCHOOL DISTRICTS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-1953

(In thousands of dollars)

	Taxes		Net Government Grants		Debentures		Loans		Other		
Year*	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Total†
1921	9,620	64	1,346	9	1,476	10	2,264	15	282	2	14,988
1926	10,229	68	2,034	14	884	6	1,383	9	426	3	14,956
1931	7,609	62	2,161	18	239	2	1,825	15	400	3	12,234
1936	5,699	64	1,467	16	80	1	1,306	15	318	4	8,870
1941	6,854	69	2,174	22	55	‡	573	6	261	3	9,917
1946	10,596	62	3,193	19	218	1	1,640	10	1,402	8	17,049
1951	16,252	50	6,016	19	404	1	9,244	28	778	2	32,694
1952	19,197	50	6,970	18	998	3	10,000	26	1,066	3	38,231
1953	21,074	48	7,023	16	2,911	7	11,329	26	1,220	3	43,557

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Data are for year ending December 31.

† Receipts for districts in the Northern Area and government aided schools are excluded. Annual debits and credits are also excluded. Total revenues include short-term loans which are used by school boards pending receipt of taxes and grants. The inclusion of both short-term loans and the taxes used to repay them thus represents some duplication in total receipts.

‡ Less than one per cent.

1921 to 1953.[26] In 1921, local taxes and grants provided 73 per cent of the total revenue of all schools; by 1926 this proportion had increased to 82 per cent; by 1951 taxes and grants together provided only 69 per cent of revenues; and by 1953 taxes and grants had further decreased in relative importance to 64 per cent. In 1921, loans provided 15 per cent of total revenues; by 1926 loans provided 9 per cent of revenues; by 1951 loans had increased in importance to yield 28 per cent of revenues; and in 1953 loans were 26 per cent and debentures had increased to provide more than 7 per cent of revenues for the first time since 1921.

The relative decline in importance of local taxes and grants and the increasing use of loans (in so far as they are long-term loans) and debentures have introduced new and inflexible costs for education. Repayments of long-term loans and debt charges on increasing amounts of borrowed money will create hardships if any serious deterioration in economic conditions occurs in the future. If, however, the major portion of increased loans is in short-term loans undertaken to finance school administration until taxes or grants are received, fluctuations in economic conditions may not affect school financing adversely. Nevertheless, this type of borrowing could create financing difficulties if, for any reason, tax arrears increased and repayment could not be made.

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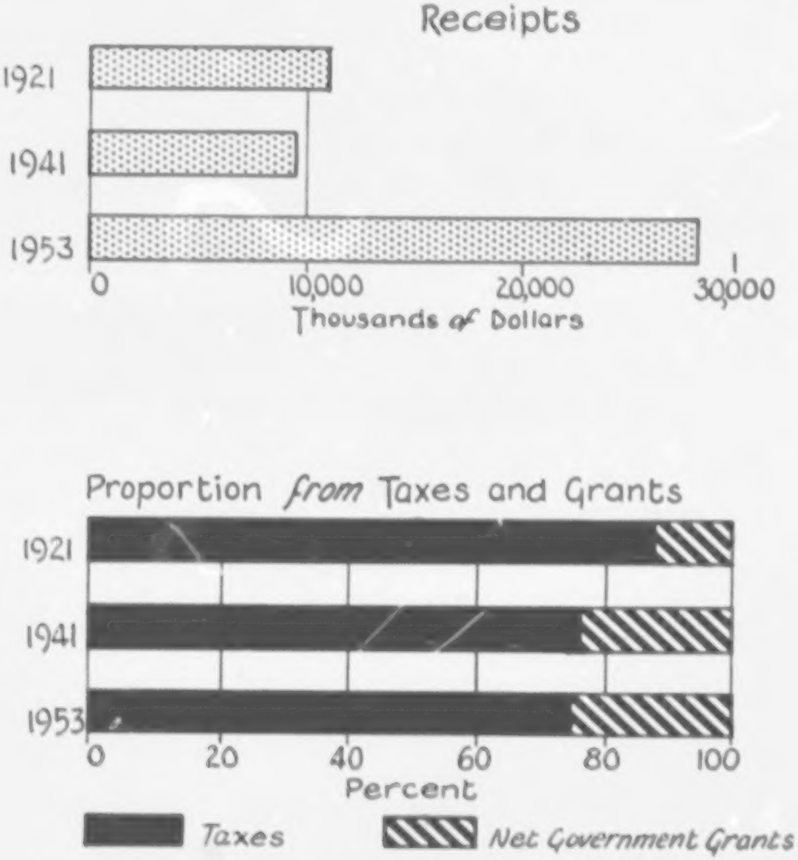
[26] Summaries for schools other than those under the School Act were not readily available prior to 1946. Receipts for all schools by type of financing for the period 1946-1953 are presented in Appendix III.

Local Taxes

Local taxes originally formed the cornerstone for the financing of the school districts, but with the passage of time local contributions have declined in importance relative to provincial contributions. Figure 15

FIGURE 15. OPERATING RECEIPTS FROM TAXES RELATIVE TO GOVERNMENT GRANTS TO SCHOOL DISTRICTS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921, 1941, AND 1953



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

shows the trend in local taxes and provincial grants in selected years from 1921 to 1953. School taxes decreased in amount from 1921 to 1941, and thereafter increased sharply.

In 1921, local taxes constituted 88 per cent of total grants and taxes but, by 1953, the proportion had decreased to 75 per cent. Government grants were about 12 per cent of total grants and taxes in 1921 but had increased to 25 per cent in 1953. It should be noted that the proportion of receipts from local taxes would have declined even more had it not been for the increasing importance of loans and debentures that must be repaid from local taxes. The increasing proportion of receipts derived from loans and debentures has the effect of keeping taxes at a high level. Without their effect on the tax levy, receipts from local taxes might not have shown a consistent increase since 1941.

Grants for Education

The Department of Education of the Provincial Government has provided financial assistance to supplement school taxes since the province was formed. Federal aid for education has been expressed through the Tax Rental Agreement with the Provincial Government and since 1945 specifically for education through the Vocational Assistance Agreement. Provincial grants have included: (1) operation grants, (2) conveyance grants, (3) building and equipment grants, (4) equalization grants, and (5) special grants.

(1) Operation grants include flat or basic grants paid to all schools, continuation and high school grants, vocational assistance grants, grants for helping teachers or special instructors, grants for payment of non-resident fees, and assistance for high school or adult classes.

Basic grants have been paid to school districts since they were first organized, although the basis for payment has been altered through the years. From 1920 to 1947, basic grants were paid to schools on a per room basis, the grant per room being in inverse ratio to the number of rooms in the school. The flat grant was $1.50 per day paid to schools with one to five rooms. In 1947, the School Grants Act was amended to permit increased aid to larger schools. More recently, the Act was amended to provide a basic grant of $3.00 per day.

School districts operating a continuation or high school room receive an additional grant over the basic grant. In 1955 these grants were $4.00 per day for each room operating. An additional grant of $1.75 per room per day is paid to those districts in which one or more rooms are devoted solely to vocational instruction, while lesser grants of $1.25 and $0.75 per room per day are paid for vocational instruction, depending upon the teaching time involved. Since 1949, grants have been offered for hiring of helping or special teachers. Grants for adult education and night classes have been available since 1925. Since 1944, high schools have been paid $30 per year for each non-resident student.

Operation grants (excluding those to Secondary and Vocational schools) have increased from $1.4 million in 1935 to $3.2 million in 1954. As a proportion of total grants, however, operation grants have decreased from 97 per cent to 38 per cent during the same years. Other types of grants have increased relatively more than grants for school operation.

2) Conveyance grants have also been paid since the early years of the province. Consolidated school districts and districts with closed schools have always received assistance for conveying students. In the last 20 years, grants for conveyance have increased from approximately $26,000 to more than $330,000. In earlier years, the consolidated districts received the major portion of conveyance grants, but in recent years conveyance grants to closed districts outweigh conveyance grants to consolidated schools in the proportion of three to one.

3) Building and equipment grants are divided into two classes: statutory and special. Statutory building and equipment grants, made for construction of a first new school or for a teachers' residence, have been available for years. Special building and repair grants are more recent. Special building grants were instituted in 1939 and repair grants in 1944. Grants through the Dominion - Provincial Vocational Assistance Agreement introduced a new type of building grant in 1947-48. Statutory equipment grants have covered standard school equipment through the years, although grants for audio-visual aids were included about 1939. Special equipment grants were authorized by the Dominion - Provincial Vocational Assistance Agreement in 1947-48, and special equipment grants for transportation equipment were introduced in 1950.

Statutory building and equipment grants never accounted for more than one per cent of total grants through the years 1929 to 1954. Special building and equipment grants, however, have become very important since 1945, when they represented about 3 per cent of total grants. In 1954, the percentage of grants made for special building and equipment had increased to 18 per cent of total grants.

4) Equalization grants were introduced in 1939 to remedy the gross inequalities in financial resources that existed among school districts from the time of their formation. Because all school districts were trying to provide comparable services, ratepayers in different districts were carrying widely divergent tax loads. Equalization grants basically were designed to assure all children, no matter where they live, a minimum standard of education and in so far as possible equal educational opportunity. Calculated on the basis of assessment per classroom, equalization grants prior to 1947 were paid only to rural and village schools. Later they were made available to town schools. With the establishment of larger units, additional equalization grants were paid to the units.

Equalization grants have increased from a total of $21,000 in 1939 to $3.4 million in 1953-54. Unit equalization grants have increased from $44,000 in 1944 to approximately $3 million in 1954.

5) Special grants are awarded at the discretion of the Minister of Education for any purpose. These grants are usually made to districts or areas with a low assessment and a high student population. In the last five years, special grants have never reached one per cent of all grants to school districts under the School Act.

Table 23 shows total grants paid under each of these classifications in selected years from 1924-25 to 1953-54. The change in importance

TABLE 23. GOVERNMENT GRANTS FOR SCHOOLS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1924-25 TO 1953-54
(In thousands of dollars)

Year	Operation		Conveyance		Statutory Building and Equipment		Special Building and Equipment		Equalization		Special		Total Grants*
	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	
1924-25	1,679	95.8	57	3.3	4	0.2	—	—	—	—	12	0.7	1,752
1929-30	2,215	95.2	69	3.0	15	0.6	—	—	—	—	28	1.2	2,327
1934-35	1,400	97.3	26	1.8	5	0.3	—	—	—	—	8	0.6	1,439
1939-40	2,291	96.5	46	1.9	10	0.4	2	0.1	21	0.9	4	0.2	2,374
1944-45	2,190	75.5	109	3.8	11	0.4	89	3.1	375	12.9	125	4.3	2,899
1949-50	2,487	43.5	179	3.1	50	0.9	1,053	18.4	1,936	33.8	16	0.3	5,721
1952-53	3,244	39.1	266	3.2	28	0.3	1,359	16.4	3,406	41.0	1	—	8,304
1953-54	3,258	38.2	331	3.9	25	0.3	1,555	18.2	3,354	39.3	3	0.1	8,526

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix IV for detailed calculation of grants.)

* These totals include grants to schools in the Northern Area of Administration and to government aided schools and are calculated according to the provincial fiscal year, April 1 to March 31. Totals therefore differ somewhat from total grants listed in Table 22. Grants to schools under the Secondary Education and Vocational Education Acts are excluded because they are for operation, equipment, and equalization only. If these latter grants are added, total grants for the years 1934-35 to 1953-54 as above are $1.64, $2.62, $3.17, $6.12, $8.71, and $8.94 million.

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0097

of the various types of grants is clearly shown. Although basic operation grants increased in amount, they have decreased in relative importance from 95 per cent of total grants in the 1930's to 38 per cent in 1953. The great increase in special building and equipment grants and in equalization grants in the last ten years accounts for the change in relative importance of these three types of grants.

Loans and Debentures

Figure 16A shows the fluctuations in loans and debentures from 1921 to 1946 and the sharp increases in loans since that date. Debentures exceeded $1 million in 1953 for the first time since 1921. Figure 16B shows the increasing importance of debentures relative to loans in recent years. The increasing use of borrowings in the financing of education is evidence of the need for substantial capital investment to finance modern education for a sparsely settled rural population.

* * *

In summary, total receipts for education in all school districts under the School Act have increased from a low of $8.9 million in 1936 to a high of $43.6 million in 1953 (Table 22). All components of receipts—taxes, grants, loans, and debentures—have shown net increases in dollars between 1921 and 1953, although these components have varied in rate and amount of increase.

Although all components of receipts have increased in amount, the relative increases have not been consistent. As a proportion of total receipts, taxes have declined 16 per cent since 1921. Grants increased slightly as a proportion of total receipts until 1941 and thereafter have shown a net decline. Loans have gained in importance since 1941, when they represented about 6 per cent of total receipts, until 1953, when they constituted 26 per cent of total receipts. Debentures have shown consistent increases in the last three years.

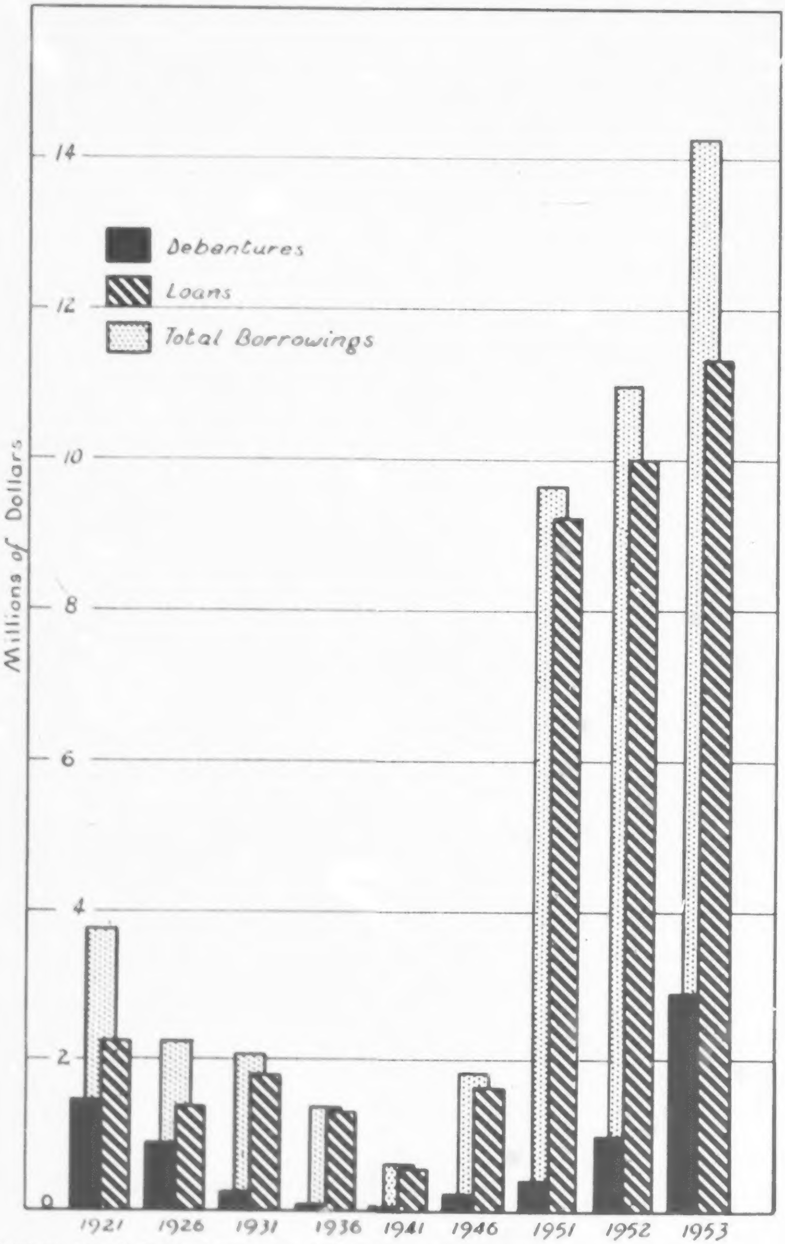
Government grants and taxes, then, constitute a declining proportion of total receipts, and loans and debentures constitute an increasing proportion. At the same time, grants for building and equipment are increasing relative to total grants. These trends indicate that the transition in the organization of education is creating capital costs that cannot be met out of existing local taxes.

IMPLICATIONS OF TRENDS

Broad economic and social trends have thus affected the provision of education. These trends have affected every aspect of education—finance, student population, teacher supply, needed facilities, and curriculum. To take account of these environmental changes, adjustments have been made in the organization and administration of education through larger area organization and centralization of school facilities. These changes have necessarily entailed adjustments in the financing of education as well.

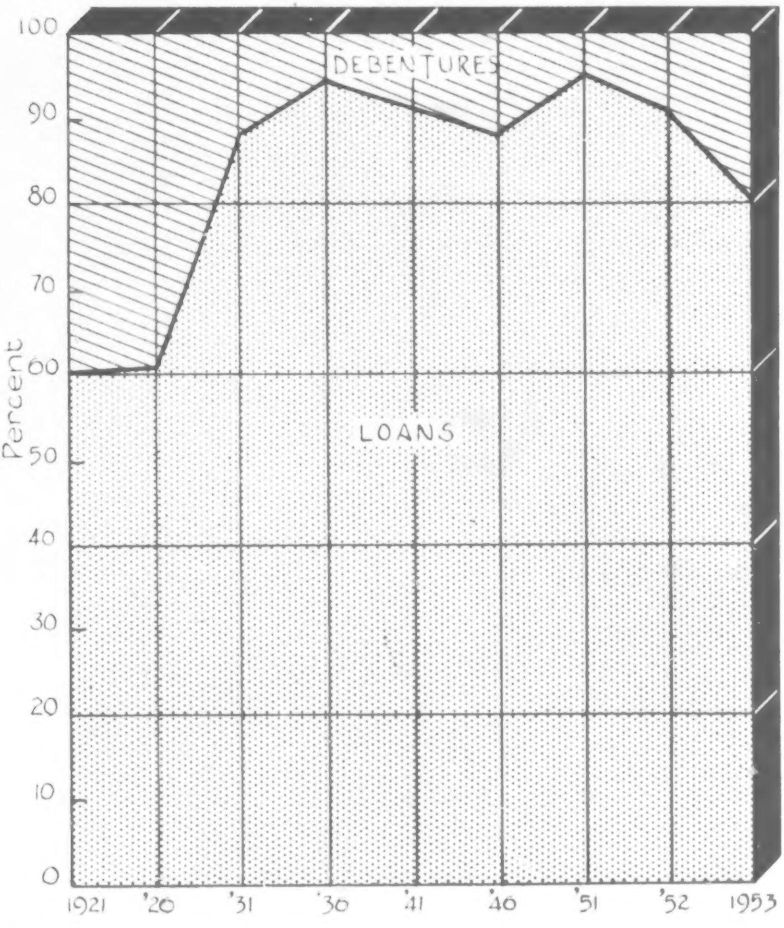
In the rest of this report the underlying questions at issue are: How adequate have these adjustments been? Does the present organ-

FIGURE 16A. DEBENTURES, LOANS AND TOTAL BORROWINGS OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-1953



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

FIGURE 16B. RELATIONSHIP OF LOANS AND DEBENTURES TO TOTAL BORROWINGS FOR SCHOOL DISTRICTS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-1953



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

ization of education provide the basis for improved rural education in the future?

These questions underlie the following examination of the process of regrouping of school facilities, the functioning of larger units of administration, the financing of education, teacher supply, student retention, professional preparation, vocational education, and adult education. All these features of education are interwoven with the historical, environmental, and educational trends described in this chapter.

SUMMARY

Historical Trends

The establishment of small quarter and half section farms under early settlement policies influenced the formation of small local school districts in the Northwest Territories. In 1896 local school districts included a maximum area of 25 square miles and a minimum of 12 children. Administration of the school districts was conducted by local people with some regulation of standards by the Lieutenant-Governor.

With a decreased density of farm population in some areas, provision was made in 1912 for large or consolidated school districts to provide the necessary school population and to finance conveyance of students. By 1926, 40 consolidated districts had been formed.

Education was financed by local taxes and government grants. Because of varying assessments, gross inequalities in tax rates and revenues existed among school districts. Revisions in the grant structure have accompanied changes in educational requirements and organization.

The province suffered from a shortage of trained teachers until the depression. Facilities for training teachers were expanded, and teachers were imported from abroad. In the 1940's, the shortage of qualified teachers again became acute.

Secondary education was provided in high school districts in urban centers, and secondary classes were offered in rural elementary schools and in continuation or high school rooms in towns, villages, and hamlets. High school classes at rural schools were generally only to Grade X, and senior high school grades were taken at central schools.

Environmental Changes and Their Impact on Education

The changing organization of agricultural production has affected rural education. Great variability in yields and prices of agricultural products coupled with advances in technology have led to three main changes in agriculture—increased farm sizes, increased mechanization, and changes in farm capital. These changes have created the need for new levels of technical skills and skills in business management among the farm population. They have, as well, affected both farm income and rural population.

Although average per farm income has increased since 1941, it has remained unstable, and a large proportion of farmers suffer from low incomes. The rise in the general level of farm income has created a demand for higher standards of education, but fluctuations in farm income and disparity in income among farmers have made financing of education difficult.

Farm population declined as farm sizes increased and agriculture was mechanized. The decline in farm population represents both a rural-to-urban migration and an out-of-province migration. The migration of farm youth to urban centers has made up a significant portion of farm population loss. Movement of farm families to residences in town accounts for an additional portion.

The decreased density of rural population has impelled the regrouping of school facilities. Movement of farm youth to town is challenging the rural educational system to prepare youth to compete for urban occupations.

Student population is an aspect of total population. Total school enrolment (exclusive of government aided schools, the Northern Area of Administration, and the School for the Deaf) increased gradually from the time of settlement to a high of 230,735 in 1931-32. Enrolments declined to 165,447 in 1952-53 but increased in 1953-54 and will probably continue to increase because of the large number of children of pre-school age. Rural enrolments have declined, while urban enrolments have increased.

The growing interrelationship between rural and urban populations and cultures has strengthened the demand for improved standards of education, has increased high school enrolments, and has increased the need for adult education programs.

Educational Adjustments

Curriculum. Generally rising farm incomes and increased interdependence of rural and urban people have fostered a demand for higher standards of education—for improved facilities, qualified teachers, and an enriched curriculum. The problem of retention of students has required scrutiny of the curriculum and adaptations to make schooling meaningful to rural youth. Vocational education has been included in the curriculum in some schools to help equip rural youth for modern farming and urban occupations. Pressures have been increased for educational authorities to prepare farm people for a wise use of leisure time and for community leadership.

Facilities. The steady decline in the number of one-room rural schools indicates that students are being accommodated in multiple-room schools with improved facilities. High school students, previously accommodated in continuation rooms with a mixture of elementary and secondary students, are now more generally accommodated in high school rooms. Much of the improvement in facilities is the result of the financial and administrative resources of larger school units. Not only is further improvement in school facilities needed, however, but conveyance of students to centralized schools requires satisfactory rural roads.

Personnel. The percentage of unqualified teachers has been declining since 1949, but in 1954, 8.7 per cent of the teaching force was not qualified. The shortage of qualified teachers affects retention of students and standards of education. As a result of the shortage of teachers, demand has increased for the services of the Government Correspondence School. The number of elementary students enrolled in correspondence courses without a teacher has declined. But the number of elementary students enrolled in correspondence courses with local supervision increased sharply during the period from 1948 to 1953, when the number of study supervisors increased. As trained teachers have replaced study supervisors, the number of students in correspondence courses has declined. The increase in enrolment of high school students in correspondence courses reflects the increased retention beyond Grade IX, the shortage of rural high school teachers, and the closing of rural schools. In 1954, 20 per cent of all high school students were using correspondence courses.

Organization. The process of closing rural schools and conveying students to central schools from larger attendance areas has been the dominant trend in the organization of rural education. Sparsity of population has contributed to the closing of schools in 31 per cent of the rural districts. Approximately 85 per cent of the districts with closed schools are conveying students to central schools. The process of regrouping educational facilities has been more advanced in the prairie than in the park region. In 1954, there were 259 larger attendance areas with 434 bus routes for the conveyance of 8,713 students. Enrolments in central schools are increasing. High school education is being centralized in more high school rooms provided by fewer school districts.

Larger school units were established to provide adequate administrative and taxing units. The larger units were not designed to alter attendance areas, but as changes became necessary the units, with their broader jurisdiction and administrative powers, were able to facilitate the transition to larger attendance areas. In recognition of the interdependence of rural and urban life, larger units include all village school districts and a majority of towns.

Financing. Education as a public expenditure in the province has nearly tripled in the years from 1921 to 1954, and the per capita and per student costs of education have risen as well. Total expenditures for education, however, have remained a relatively stable proportion of personal income. In the total provincial budget, expenditures for education have increased as have all expenditures for government services, but since 1950 expenditures for education as a proportion of total expenditures have declined slightly. Similarly, a slightly lower priority has been assigned to education than to other services in the allocation of local resources.

Within total expenditures for education, increasing proportions of expenditures are being allocated to non-operating or capital expenditures. Within the operating budget of the school system, expenditures for conveyance, auxiliary services, and capital costs from current revenues have increased more than other operating expenditures. These trends reflect the high capital costs associated with centralization of school facilities.

Revenues for education are derived from local taxes, grants, and loans and debentures. Although each of these components has increased in amount over the years, local taxes and grants have declined in importance and increasing use is being made of loans and debentures. This trend, coupled with changes in the grant structure whereby basic operation grants are declining in importance and special building and equipment grants and equalization grants are increasing as proportions of total grants, reveals the means adopted to finance the capital costs of a system of rural education in transition to centralized school facilities.

Implications of Trends

To take account of the economic and social trends that have affected education, adjustments have been made in the organization and administration of education. Larger areas of organization and centralization have required adjustments in the financing of education as well. The rest of this report is addressed to whether these adjustments are adequate to provide a basis for satisfactory education in the future. In the examination of various aspects of rural education in succeeding chapters, their interrelationship with the historical, environmental, and educational trends should be borne in mind.

CHAPTER IV

Regrouping of Educational Facilities

The economic and social changes in the rural environment described in Chapter III directly affected the organization of rural education in small school districts formed on a neighbourhood basis. In fact, they have resulted in a drastic regrouping of school facilities—the most significant single development in the provision of education in rural areas. As original patterns of settlement were modified, loss of population in a school district led to the closing of its school. Provincial regulations provided that when school enrolment dropped below six pupils, the school ceased to earn the full provincial grant. Further decreases in enrolment meant further loss of grants, and this together with other local factors meant that many schools could not be kept open. The shortage of teachers during World War II and the post-war years aggravated the difficulties of operating numerous rural school districts, and those districts unable to secure a teacher were forced either to operate with study supervisors or close. With increasing mechanization of agriculture, farm size increases, declining rural and farm populations, wide use of the automobile, and increasing interchange between rural and urban people, the small school district faced growing difficulties in providing the facilities needed for schooling.

School administrations have attempted to facilitate school attendance of pupils remote from operating schools by providing transportation. Larger attendance areas have been developed, each of which contains a central operating school providing facilities for students from neighbouring non-operating school districts. Parents at first were naturally hesitant to subject their children to the unknowns of school bus transportation. Many preferred to move their homes to urban centers.[1]

Experience has shown, however, that ratepayer antagonism to transportation of students decreases after school buses have been in operation for some time. Community hearings held by the Commission revealed that once a school bus system is established its services are requested by ratepayers in school districts not included in the bus route.

Although the regrouping of school facilities was originally an adjustment to sparse settlement in rural areas, once under way the movement shaped the content and quality of education as well. Through centralization of school facilities, students from rural areas can enjoy the benefits of a well-equipped school building, graded classes and a full curriculum for each class, specialized teachers, and association with several teachers and with children of their own age. Formerly, these features of schooling were limited to urban education, but regrouping of school facilities has begun to bring these benefits to rural children as well.

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[1] The movement to town of a few families increases the problem of providing education for those who remain in the country. If a school district is operating with a minimum number of students and a few families move to town, it becomes more costly per pupil to convey those who remain.

Although centralization offers these benefits, it raises new problems of its own. In many instances, for example, the increased distances from home to school combined with inflexible conveyance schedules prevent children and their parents from participating in extra-curricular activities. In addition, conveyance of both high school and elementary pupils on the same bus often results in inconveniences and delays for one or both groups.

On balance, however, many rural parents and nearly all educators have come to the conclusion that centralization is the only method by which the quality of rural education can be raised. One consultant to the Commission, in urging energetic centralization of school facilities wherever possible, stated sharply:

> I think we should cease eulogizing the little red school for the sake of pleasing rural people and say what every educator knows to be true, that the one-room rural school is an inadequate survival of pioneer conditions and can no longer serve the purposes of modern education. It was created chiefly to impart literacy, but literacy has long been outmoded as the only, or even the most important, objective of education.

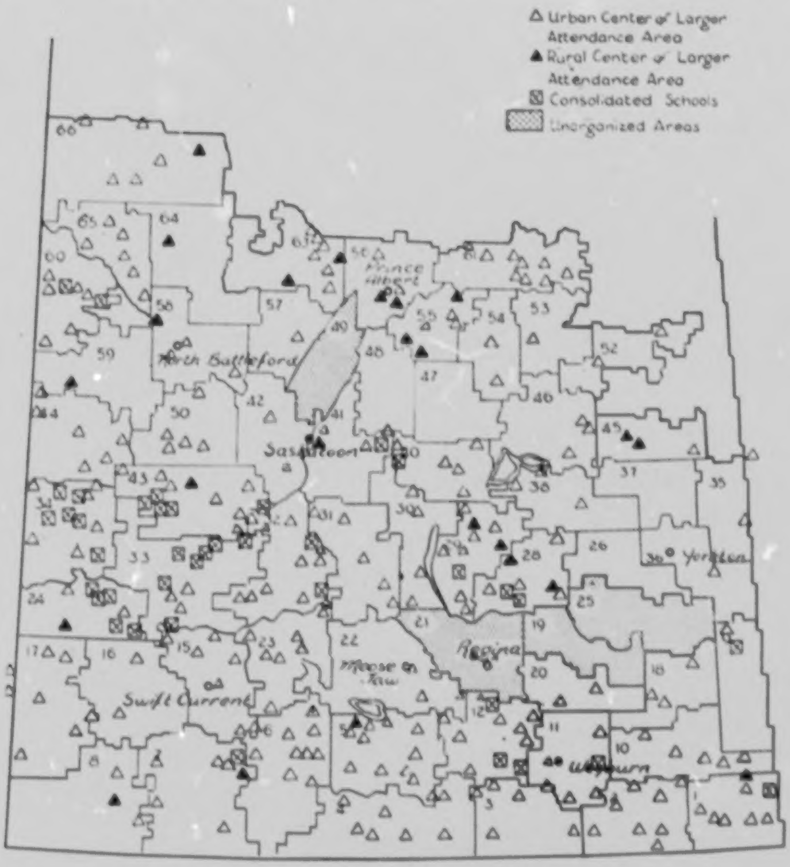
This chapter first reviews the extent of regrouping of school facilities that exists in the province at present and analyses in detail one larger school unit in which considerable centralization of school facilities and development of school bus routes have occurred. The following factors associated with regrouping of school facilities are discussed: (1) density of population, (2) supply of qualified teachers, (3) facilities for education and transportation of students, (4) financing of education, (5) establishment of larger school units, (6) ratepayer attitudes, and (7) improved standards of education. In the light of these factors, the future development of centralization of school facilities in the province is considered.

Description of Present Regrouping of Educational Facilities

Regrouping of educational facilities involves the development of larger attendance areas, each of which contains a central operating school providing facilities for students from neighbouring non-operating school districts. The transportation of students to centralized schools is essential in any regrouping of school facilities. School administrations, particularly larger unit boards, have attempted to facilitate school attendance of those remote from operating schools by providing transportation, but methods of providing transportation vary with local circumstances. In the majority of areas, the unit owns some conveyance equipment and hires operators. In some areas, a resident of a local school district may convey students by private automobile or truck on a contract basis with the larger school unit. Local circumstances determine which students are conveyed. For example, a district 15 miles from a central school may be closed and require conveyance of its students. To make conveyance more economical, an adjoining district may also be closed and its students transported by the same bus. The students involved in the two districts may be both elementary and high school students. If the bus is not fully loaded, high school students from districts along the route may also be transported.

Figure 17 shows the extent of regrouping of school facilities that had occurred in the province as a whole by June, 1953. The 259 larger attendance areas established served 817 school districts and included 434 bus routes conveying 8,713 students.[2] In addition to these

FIGURE 17. LARGER ATTENDANCE AREAS WITHIN LARGER SCHOOL UNITS AND UNORGANIZED SUPERINTENDENCIES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1953*


△ Urban Center of Larger Attendance Area
▲ Rural Center of Larger Attendance Area
☒ Consolidated Schools
▨ Unorganized Areas
Prince Albert
North Battleford
Saskatoon
Yorkton
Regina
Moose Jaw
Swift Current
Weyburn

SOURCE: Information supplied by Department of Education, 1954.
* Sixty superintendencies cover the settled portion of the province, fifty-six of which are organized as larger school units.

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[2] By June, 1955, there were 328 larger attendance areas in which 12,700 students were conveyed.

districts, 320 other districts not in larger attendance areas were also closed by June, 1953, and students were privately conveyed from these districts. Thus, by June, 1953, 1,137 school districts or 25 per cent of the organized school districts in the province were closed and conveying students. The pupils from these districts were being conveyed to multiple-room schools, in hamlets, villages, towns, and central rural locations.

Regrouping of school facilities has been more extensive in the prairie region of the province with its large straight grain farms than in the park region, where settlement is more dense on smaller diversified farms. In the prairie region 53.6 per cent of rural schools had been closed by 1954, and in the park region only 14.1 per cent had been closed (Table 24).

Despite extensive regrouping of facilities, however, there will always be some school districts that cannot be readily integrated into larger attendance areas. Topography, isolated settlement, and road conditions may make conveyance of students from some districts impractical.

The majority of central schools are located in small community centers or local "towns" to which rural people go for some commercial and social services. The community being established by rural people for trade and other services has been respected in the establishment of many larger attendance areas. In about a dozen instances, patterns of community association are followed to the extent that students are conveyed from one unit to a school nearby in a neighbouring unit. In these cases the two units assume the costs in proportion to the number of students from each unit. But the location of some other centralized schools is at variance with community patterns being developed by rural people. Students may be conveyed considerable distances to schools within their own unit when co-operation with a neighbouring unit might make available a nearer school in a center which the people patronize for other services.

TABLE 24. PROPORTION OF RURAL SCHOOLS IN LARGER UNITS CLOSED AND CONVEYING STUDENTS, BY PRAIRIE AND PARK REGIONS AND PROVINCE, SASKATCHEWAN, 1954

Region	Number of Rural Schools	Schools Closed		Schools Conveying Students		Schools Inactive	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Prairie*	2,391	1,281	53.6	1,147	48.0	134	5.6
Park†	1,587	223	14.1	205	12.9	18	1.2
Province	3,978	1,504	37.8	1,352	34.0	152	3.8

SOURCE: *Annual Report*, Department of Education, 1953-54.

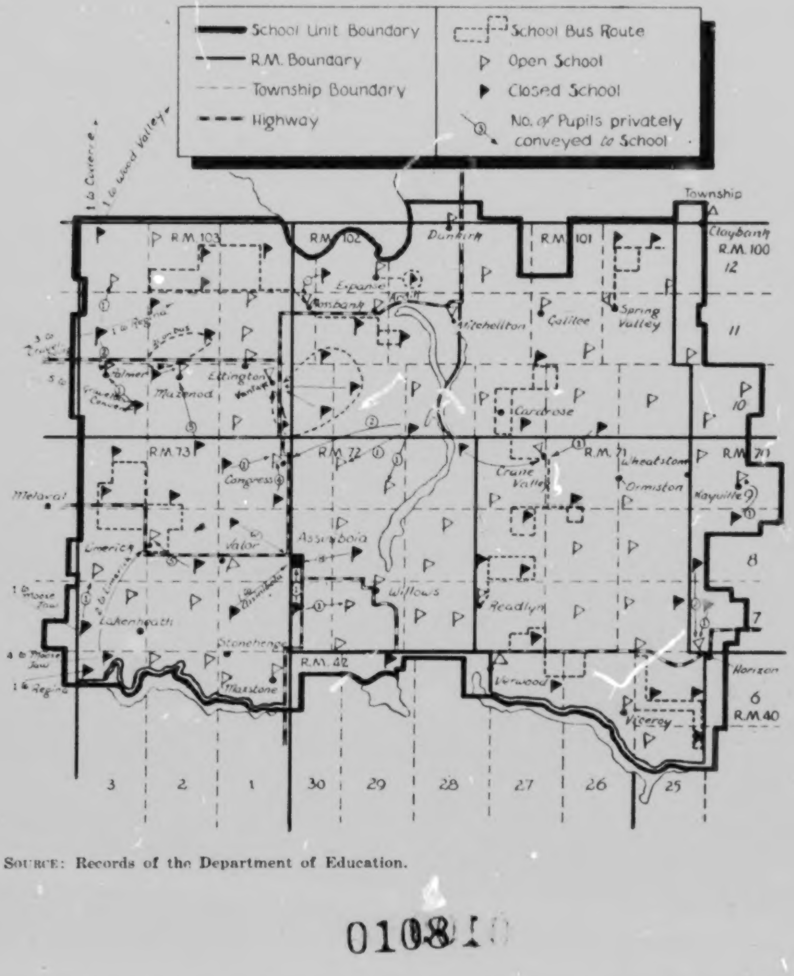
* Includes Units 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 22, 23, 24, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 41, 42, 43, 44, 50, 59.

† Includes Units 10, 18, 26, 28, 35, 36, 37, 38, 45, 46, 47, 48, 52, 54, 55, 56, 57, 61, 63, 64, 65, 66.

Figure 18 gives a picture of the regrouping of school facilities that has occurred in the Assiniboia larger school unit. In 1953, the unit had 63 operating school districts and 51 closed districts. Students were conveyed from all the closed school districts to central schools. Eleven larger attendance areas serving 37 districts had been established in which 11 bus routes carried 290 students. The remaining 14 closed districts had 45 students who were privately conveyed to the nearest operating school. Fifteen other students were enrolled in parochial or high schools outside the unit.

In 1953, each closed district had an average of 7 students, while the average enrolment at the operating

FIGURE 18. ATTENDANCE AREAS IN ASSINIBOIA LARGER SCHOOL UNIT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1953


School Unit Boundary
R.M. Boundary
Township Boundary
Highway
School Bus Route
Open School
Closed School
No. of Pupils privately conveyed to School
1 to Ceylon
1 to Wood Valley
R.M. 103
R.M. 102
Dunkirk
R.M. 101
Township
Claybank
R.M. 100
12
Expanse
Ardill
Mitchellton
Galilee
Spring Valley
11
1 to Regina
3 to Crowsley
Palmer
Mazenod
Ettington
5 to
Gravelbourg Convent
Cardross
10
R.M. 73
R.M. 72
R.M. 71
Wheatstone
R.M. 70
Congress
Crane Valley
Ormiston
Mayville
Melaval
Valor
Assiniboia
8
Limerick
2 to Limerick
1 to Moose Jaw
Willows
Readlyn
7
Lakenheath
Stonehenge
4 to Moose Jaw
1 to Regina
R.M. 42
Verwood
Horizon
Maxstone
Viceroy
6
R.M. 40
3
2
1
30
29
28
27
26
25

SOURCE: Records of the Department of Education.

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schools was 12. Table 25 shows the number of students conveyed to each of the 9 central schools in the unit, the number of districts from which they are conveyed to each school, the mileage covered, the breakdown of elementary and secondary students for each central school, and the total enrolment per school. Despite the substantial mileage of the bus routes, total enrolment in several of the schools is not high, indicating that the central schools are located in areas of relatively sparse population containing relatively small centers.

An analysis of high school enrolments in the Assiniboia unit indicates that the regrouping of school facilities that has occurred has failed to raise enrolments in each grade above a minimum level (Table 26). Many of the high school grades have only one or two pupils, an attendance only slightly greater than in the one-room rural school. This situation may reflect the low level of retention of high school students, a factor which must be considered in defining the attendance areas. Nevertheless, although the per grade enrolment is lower than it might be, the high school enrolment as a whole is somewhat improved, thus providing students with the opportunity to associate with others of similar age.

In regrouping school facilities and establishing bus routes, an important consideration, particularly for the younger children, is the amount of travelling necessary. The average mileage of the 9 bus routes in the Assiniboia unit that reported in 1953-54 was 31 miles, which represents approximately 45 minutes of travelling time. Although school enrolments could be somewhat increased if all rural students were conveyed to the nearest hamlet or

TABLE 25. CONVEYANCE OF STUDENTS TO NINE CENTRALIZED SCHOOLS IN THE ASSINIBOIA LARGER SCHOOL UNIT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1953

Centralized School	Number of Districts Conveyed	Mileage Covered (Total)	High School Students Conveyed	Elementary Students Conveyed	Total Students Conveyed	Total Enrolment
Mossbank	7	58(2)*	17	33	50	165
Limerick	3	28	4	12	16	117
Crane Valley	8	71(2)*	13	51	64	73
Spring Valley	3	32	7	35	42	106
Readlyn	2	30	5	14	19	46
Viceroy	4	26	5	10	15	67
Verwood	2	35	7	12	19	38
Mazenod	2	—†	—	—	21	73
Vantage	4	—†	—	—	18	50

SOURCE: Records of the Department of Education.

* Numbers in brackets represent number of bus routes.

† Individual reports on bus routes not available for Mazenod and Vantage.

TABLE 26. HIGH SCHOOL ENROLMENT AT CENTRALIZED SCHOOLS IN ASSINIBOIA LARGER SCHOOL UNIT BY GRADES, 1953-54

Centralized School	Grade IX	Grade X	Grade XI	Grade XII	Total Enrolment	Number Conveyed
Limerick	9	11	12	7	39	4
Palmer	1	5	—	—	6	—
Viceroy	6	3	3	3	15	5
Horizon	3	1	—	—	4	—
Verwood	4	3	1	2	10	7
Artesian (Spring Valley)	4	9	5	1	19	7
Readlyn	4	4	3	2	13	5
Mazenod	4	4	3	1	12	—
Mossbank	21	15	9	8	53	17
Crane Valley	5	3	4	4	16	13

SOURCE: Records of the Department of Education.

village with an operating school, the per grade enrolments would not be increased appreciably. As long as a single conveyance system is used for elementary and secondary school students, the extent of regrouping of secondary school facilities is governed by the desirable travel time for the younger pupils.

Factors Associated With Centralization

Numerous factors have been associated with the regrouping of school facilities. Some, such as low density of population and shortage of teachers, have been causes of centralization. The formation of larger school units has been a contemporary development that influenced regrouping. Still others, such as financing, transportation, and standards of education, have been problems of rural education with a bearing on centralization.

Population Density

The decline in farm population in the province as a whole is generally related to the decline in operating school districts. Between 1941 and 1951, farm population declined 22 per cent, and operating school districts declined 19 per cent. Although a general relationship obtains for the province as a whole, lack of correlation between population decline in specific school units and number of schools closed in those units indicates that the process of centralization is not directed by population shifts alone.

Since the decline in population is closely related to the pattern of farming, differences exist in the decline in number of operating school districts in the prairie and park regions. Table 24 demon-

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strated that the majority of schools that have been closed and from which students are being conveyed to central schools are located in the prairie region, where large straight grain farming has made settlement more sparse than in the park region.

The feature of population that most directly affects regrouping of school facilities is density of population in each school district. For example, one school district within a school unit may be so sparsely populated that a 50 per cent decline in population may necessitate the closing of an operating school. Another school district in the same unit may lose 50 per cent of its population but still have ample population to support an operating school. Population declines affect school units as well with varying impact.

In order to determine the effect of density of population on regrouping of school facilities, two units were analysed. The exact school locations and township populations were identified in the Gravelbourg unit with 112 rural districts, 52 of which were closed in 1951, and in the Melville unit with no schools closed in 1951. Between 1941 and 1951, population declined 32.5 per cent in the Gravelbourg unit and 21.8 per cent in the Melville unit.

Of 77 townships in the Gravelbourg unit, there were 26 in which no schools operated. The average population of these townships was 76, a population density of 2.1 persons per square mile. Those townships in which one school operated had an average population of 106, or 3 persons per square mile, while those with two schools operating had average populations of 135, or 3.8 persons per square mile.[3] The Melville school unit in which no schools were closed had an average township population of 212, a population density of 5.8 persons per square mile. Clearly, then, the closing of rural schools in the Gravelbourg unit was related to the low density of its rural population.

A comparison of the Gravelbourg and Melville units with other units in which the extent of centralization was similar substantiates the conclusion that centralization is related to population density (Table 27). Sixteen units with fewer than 10 per cent of their school districts closed were compared with the Melville unit, and 10 units with more than 40 per cent of their districts closed were compared with the Gravelbourg unit. Table 27 shows similarity in population density and number of schools closed for each of these two comparisons.

A basic determining factor in the decision to close schools is therefore the density of population in the area. In 1953, approximately 500 rural schools with fewer than 10 pupils each were still in operation. Many of these schools, faced with low density of population, are on the verge of closing and conveying their students to centralized schools. To the extent that further declines in rural population, lower density of rural population, and movement of farm people to urban areas can be anticipated, increased numbers of rural schools will be closed in the future. Population decline will have its most significant impact on centralization in those areas where farm size adjustments affect density of population critically.

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[3] Since school districts cut across township boundaries, township populations cannot be compared accurately with populations in school districts.

TABLE 27. RELATIONSHIP OF DEGREE OF CENTRALIZATION TO POPULATION DENSITY, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951*

Item	16 Larger School Units with Less than 10 Per Cent of Schools Closed	Melville Unit	10 Larger School Units with Over 40 Per Cent of Schools Closed	Gravelbourg Unit
Average population per district†	113	114	57	61
Population per square mile	6.3	5.8	3.2	2.5

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, and *Annual Report*, Department of Education, 1951-52.

* As measured by the percentage of schools closed in selected larger school units.

† Assuming school districts containing 18 sections.

Supply of Qualified Teachers

The shortage of qualified teachers in rural schools in the postwar years provided an impetus to centralization. Faced with no teacher at all in many rural schools or at best with a succession of inexperienced teachers who remained but a short time, parents and school boards turned to new organizational forms for rural education.

In the school year 1954-55, 546 teachers employed in Saskatchewan schools had less than minimum qualifications. Of these, 481 (88.1 per cent) were serving in schools outside town and city districts. When it is considered that, in addition, practically all study supervisors are employed in rural schools and that the majority of students attend rural and village schools, it is evident that the shortage of qualified teachers has a much greater impact on rural education than on urban (Table 28).

The critical shortage of qualified teachers is illustrated in its more extreme aspects by the number of study supervisors employed. The number of study supervisors rose from 40 in 1946-47 to a high of 609 in 1952-53 and declined to 524 by 1953-54.[1] In the larger units, study supervisors constituted approximately 10 per cent of the total teaching staff over the four-year period 1949-50 to 1952-53 (Table 29). During the same years, the percentage of closed rural schools in larger units increased from 23 per cent to 31 per cent (Table 30). Thus, despite the increasing number of closed rural schools, the need for study supervisors has not yet been eliminated.

Centralization as a measure to increase the supply of teachers is discussed in Chapter VII. Here it may merely be noted that, with present standards of education, on the average one teacher can be saved for every two rural schools closed. As standards of education improve, more qualified teachers, particularly specialized teachers, may be required in central schools.

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[1] The number of study supervisors further declined to 133 by the fall term of 1955.

TABLE 28. NUMBER OF TEACHERS WITH VARYING LEVELS OF CERTIFICATION AND DISTRIBUTION BY TOWNS, CITIES, AND LARGER UNITS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1954-55

Certification	Cities		Larger Units*		Towns		Total
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Conditional and Temporary	13	5.0	227	88.3	17	6.6	257
Permanent Second	19	6.6	254	87.9	16	5.5	289
Interim Standard and Interim First	162	8.6	1,574	84.0	138	7.4	1,874
Permanent First	424	18.8	1,627	72.0	209	9.2	2,260
Permanent Superior	265	24.0	725	66.0	110	10.0	1,100
Professional	265	38.5	328	47.7	95	13.8	688
Advanced	115	47.3	105	43.2	23	9.5	243
Permanent Technical and Vocational	39	75.0	10	19.2	3	5.8	52

SOURCE: Saskatchewan Teachers Federation.

* Includes four superintendencies not organized as larger units.

TABLE 29. STUDY SUPERVISORS AS PERCENTAGE OF LARGER SCHOOL UNIT TEACHERS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1949-50 TO 1952-53

Year	Larger School Units Reporting	Total Teaching Staff	Study Supervisors	
			Number	Per Cent of Total
1949-50	35	2,958	338	11.4
1950-51	41	3,716	375	10.1
1951-52	52	4,784	520	10.9
1952-53	53	4,772	442	9.3

SOURCE: Questionnaire returned by larger school unit superintendents, 1953.

TABLE 30. RURAL SCHOOLS CLOSED IN LARGER SCHOOL UNITS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1949-50 TO 1952-53*

Year	Larger School Units	Total Rural Schools	Rural Schools Closed	
			Number	Per Cent of Total
1949-50	48	3,786	883	23.3
1950-51	48	3,788	930	24.5
1951-52	49	3,867	1,056	27.3
1952-53	54	4,238	1,307	30.8

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.
* This assumes that all non-operating districts are rural.

Not only can a centralized school system operate with fewer teachers than the rural school districts serving the same student population, but conditions in central schools tend to attract and retain qualified teachers. Working conditions are generally more satisfactory, since qualified teachers can be fully utilized in graded classes and teachers have the opportunity for professional interchange with colleagues. Living conditions are generally more satisfactory than in isolated rural school districts.

Facilities and Transportation of Students

Facilities required for education include school buildings and equipment, conveyance equipment, and serviceable roads. It is difficult to determine the extent to which the desire for modern school buildings with central heating, good sanitation, gymnasiums, and so forth has led to centralization. Certainly, the lack of high school facilities in many rural areas has resulted in centralized high schools. In a few northern units, school boards have built or improved centralized schools and instituted conveyance systems to replace antiquated one-room rural schools. But in many school districts in the prairie region where the original schools had been replaced by more recent one-room buildings, the inadequacy of these newer structures alone has not been sufficient to compel regrouping of school facilities.

A problem in the regrouping of school facilities has been the necessity of providing transportation for students to centralized schools. The initial investment in buses and bombardiers, the maintenance costs of the equipment, and the organization required for operation of school bus routes have been obstacles to centralization. Despite the problem in organizing a conveyance system, more than 7,000 miles of school bus routes were covered twice daily in 1953.

This extensive mileage of school bus routes makes the quality of rural roads of prime importance to the regrouping of school facilities.[5] Not only are serviceable market roads essential, but feeder roads and roads leading from farm residences to feeder roads must be passable. Satisfactory conveyance requires that the students be picked up at the farm residence or as close to it as possible.

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[5] See the Commission's report on Rural Roads and Local Government for discussion of the problem of rural roads in relation to education.

All-weather rural roads suitable for year-round transportation by school bus would be ideal. Since roads of all-weather standard are not financially possible at present in large sections of the province, bombardiers are used for winter transportation. Although bombardiers meet the need for winter travel, they are a dual investment in transportation equipment for school units. In 1955, 199 bombardiers were in use in larger school units, of which 187 were owned by the units. Since the initial capital investment, maintenance costs, and depreciation on bombardiers must be borne for only three or four months' use per year, it is clear that bombardiers are a compensation for poor roads that school units can ill afford.

Financing of Education

The problem of financing education is associated with centralization of school facilities. The establishment of a centralized school system represents substantial initial investment in an adequate central school plant and assumption of high fixed costs for vehicles, their operation and maintenance.[6] These are costs beyond the traditional costs of education — teachers' salaries and expenditures for maintenance and operation of the school. In addition to direct education costs, costs of road improvement and maintenance must also be borne by the rural ratepayer. If conveyance is not used, the cost of providing and maintaining dormitories must be met, or individual families must pay for board and lodging at the central location.

Against these costs, however, must be weighed the costs of retaining the one-room rural school, often with a minimum of students. In an effort to ascertain the relative increase in school costs in larger school units with considerable centralization and units with little or no centralization, an analysis of expenditures in two groups of units between 1946 and 1951 was undertaken.[7] One group consisted of 10 units in which 13 per cent of the schools were closed during this period and the students conveyed; the expenditures in this group of units increased 56 per cent in the period studied. Costs of instruction, administration, and plant operation and maintenance in this group increased relatively less than total costs. The other group consisted of 13 units in which little or no centralization occurred; total expenditures for this group in the same period increased 76 per cent. Costs per student were considerably higher in the centralized areas than in the areas with little centralization, but the centralized areas had a smaller increase in total costs than the areas with little centralization.

In Chapter VI, the costs of centralization are discussed. Assuming the present pattern of income and expenditure, operating income and expenditures are compared for a hypothetical school unit in three types of circumstances: (1) a unit in which no schools are closed, (2) a unit in which 30 schools are closed and the students conveyed but no additional facilities are required at the central location, and (3) a unit in which 30 schools are closed and students conveyed and in which 15 additional rooms are required at the central location.[8] The comparison shows that economies can be effected by regrouping facilities. The amount of saving is determined by the relation between the number of schools closed and the capital expenditures required to accommodate the students at the central location. If a 2:1 ratio can be maintained between number of schools closed and number of extra rooms required at the central location, economies can be realized. Economies will increase as more schools are closed relative to new facilities required.

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[6] Larger Unit Boards, according to a 1955 survey conducted by the Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association, estimate that building expenditures associated with centralization will be $3.7 million between 1955 and 1960, and that capital expenditures for transportation will be $1.5 million.

[7] For a full discussion of this analysis see Chapter VI.

The evidence examined indicates that centralization offers net financial benefits. When it is considered that centralization provides a higher standard of education than the one-room rural school, then to the financial benefits are added educational advantages not measurable in dollars and cents.

Nevertheless, centralization involves the relocation of facilities and often the improvement of school buildings or the construction of new school buildings at the central location. Substantial capital investment is needed to expand facilities as well as to acquire transportation equipment. Total capital expenditures in all school districts and larger units have increased from about $560,000 in 1946 to about $6 million in 1953 as centralization has increased. Between 1946 and 1953, 20 per cent of the rural school districts ceased to operate.

The high initial capital investment required by centralization is met partly from current revenue in the larger school units, since units may finance capital expenditures from current revenue. Capital is also provided from a revolving provincial loan fund available to larger school units for capital costs during the first five years after their establishment. Debentures may be issued by school districts and units after the first five years of their existence. Thus, although economies in operating costs can be secured through centralization, substantial capital investment is required at the outset for buildings and transportation equipment.

Administration

The planning of larger attendance areas, the organization of school bus routes, and the financing of central schools are complex administrative problems faced by school boards. Individual school boards, with jurisdiction limited to a small area, with restricted and unstable financial resources, and lacking full-time administrative personnel, were ill-equipped to work out the many details in the process of centralizing facilities. The formation of larger school units solved these administrative problems in large measure. Administrative jurisdiction over wide areas permits co-ordinated administration of regrouping numerous school districts. The increased revenues of larger units have placed them in a better position than individual school districts to finance the initial costs of centralization. The unit secretary or other administrative personnel can assure uniformity and equity in the development of the details of centralization. Furthermore, in a few areas several units have combined to achieve efficiency in planning and economies in financing the construction of centralized schools.

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[8] See Appendix V.

Opponents of larger units of school administration and centralization of school facilities have charged that the larger units have caused the trend towards closing of rural schools. Actually, this is not true. The 56 larger school units include 4,381 rural school districts. By June, 1953, 1,307 rural schools had been closed. Of these, 729 or nearly half had been closed before inclusion in larger units. Thus, the impetus for regrouping of school facilities long preceded the formation of larger units, but as strong units of administration in education they have been able to facilitate the regrouping of school facilities as the need for centralization within the units has appeared.

Ratepayer Attitudes

Ratepayer attitudes towards centralization determine the demand from ratepayers for regrouping of facilities and the support given to the development of centralized schools.[9] To ascertain the attitude of ratepayers towards centralization, a questionnaire was submitted to unit secretaries[10] concerning the pressure exerted by ratepayers on unit boards for regrouping of facilities. Thirty-six per cent of unit secretaries indicated that their unit boards have received some pressure from ratepayers to provide increased bus transportation, and an additional 10 per cent indicated that fairly great pressure has been exerted on the board for increased conveyance to centralized schools. Those units which reported no pressure for conveyance are those in which few or no students are being conveyed. But once there is experience with conveyance, then ratepayers demand increased centralization. Units in which students from 40-50 per cent of the districts are being conveyed are those which requested expanded conveyance.

After centralized schools are established, ratepayers apparently not only demand more centralization but often participate actively in the development of bus routes and central facilities. Suggestions from ratepayers based on local needs and active support of ratepayers during the period of organization may greatly facilitate the development of a conveyance system.

Improved Standards of Education

Although centralization was undertaken primarily as an adjustment to loss of population in rural school districts and to the shortage of teachers, underlying the process is the desire for higher standards of education. Rural people may not have undertaken centralization of school facilities explicitly to secure a higher standard of education for their children, but the effort to provide more efficient high school facilities and increased numbers of qualified teachers is certainly a reflection of interest in a higher standard of education. Many rural people have come to recognize the limitations inherent in one-room rural schools in sparsely settled areas — the lack of contact of children with others of similar ages and the interchange with only a single teacher. Experience with centralized schools has opened new vistas of educational opportunity associated with well-equipped, well-staffed multiple-room schools.

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[9] The attitudes of ratepayers may work in conjunction with the financial condition of the unit to encourage or discourage centralization. If ratepayers in a unit with high assessment are opposed to consolidating facilities, the unit can perhaps afford to retain a large number of one-room schools. But ratepayers in a unit with low assessment may be forced for economic reasons to close schools, although they may also be opposed to centralization.

[10] This questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix VI.

Regardless, however, of the motives of school district boards in closing rural schools and transporting students to centralized schools, centralization of school facilities offers economies in securing essential standards of education for widely scattered rural children. The tax resources of larger attendance areas and increased enrolments through conveying pupils to a central school may make possible improved curricula and facilities. Educators and parents who have had experience with centralized schools all agree that regrouping of school facilities is the key to raising standards of education. The desire for higher quality education for all students, which can be provided only in more specialized central schools, is a factor which will gain strength and will undoubtedly lead to the closing of additional rural schools and increased regrouping of school facilities in the future.

Future Development of Centralization

The future development of centralization will involve three main problems: (1) the proper definition of larger attendance areas and the levels at which centralization is organized, (2) the financing of the capital costs of centralization, and (3) the assurance of ratepayer participation in the affairs of the central school.

Definition of Larger Attendance Areas

The signal virtue of the rural school district in earlier years was that in geography it coincided with the rural neighbourhood and in activity it was part of the life of the community. The strong support for the rural school was derived in large measure from its closeness to the neighbourhood group which it served.

Changes in rural life—improved transportation and a declining rural population—have made the neighbourhood group less independent and cohesive. The village-centered community, composed of an association of neighbourhood groups around a hamlet or village, has assumed many of the aspects of the earlier neighbourhood. Today almost all the social and economic services of rural people are provided by institutions maintained in the trade center of the community. For certain levels of service rural people go to the village center of the comunity; for more specialized or a wider variety of services they go to larger service centers.

The school system is part of this pattern of community living. A successful program of centralization must delineate larger attendance areas that conform to community patterns of association. The regrouping of school facilities that has occurred has in a general way respected community patterns of association. But in the future, if centralization is to serve the purpose of improving educational opportunity, it must do more than accommodate students at the nearest or most convenient operating school, regardless of its size or standards. Larger attendance areas must not only conform to the emerging village or town community within which rural people associate but may also need to be differentiated for elementary and secondary students. In effect, larger attendance areas must be refined to assure enrolments for elementary and secondary classes adequate for high quality education.

The present level of centralization in the majority of areas has not greatly increased enrolments in each grade unless the central school is located in a fairly large urban area. In the Assiniboia school unit, enrolments per grade were lowest for high school students. Two of the schools had no students at all in grades XI and XII, and in the remaining seven schools only two had per grade enrolments in the high school grades of seven students or more. The other five schools had per grade enrolments in the high school grades of one to five students. Such a low per grade enrolment provides an opportunity for development of students only slightly better than that of the rural school.

Students of educational reorganization in the United States have suggested that minimum enrolment for high school grades is about 30 students. Obviously, in a rural province of sparse population this criterion is too high. Students of educational reorganization in the Great Plains states have suggested that means must be devised to provide the maximum in high school opportunity in high schools with enrolments of 75 students. In the Assiniboia unit only the Mossbank school approached this enrolment. Because of the need for adequate enrolments of high school students, the National Commission on School District Reorganization in the United States has suggested that "the most satisfactory attendance area for high school is an area coterminous with the natural community; sometimes it may be both desirable and practicable to include two or more such communities in order that the enrolment may be large enough to justify a good program."[11]

A modifying influence on the enlargement of the community from which high school students are drawn is the conveyance system. As long as a single conveyance system is used for elementary and secondary school students, the level of centralization for high school students is governed by the maximum driving time that elementary students should tolerate. The average mileage of bus routes in the Assiniboia unit in 1953-54 was 31 miles, which represents approximately 45 minutes of driving time. This is the maximum for young children. An amalgamation of all rural districts within an acceptable driving distance of a given point will not enhance high school enrolments at the village or hamlet schools to any appreciable extent. This suggests that two levels of centralization must be considered, one for elementary students in a relatively localized area and one for high school students in a wider area.[12] Figures 19A and B illustrate the manner in which people in the Wynyard district shop for groceries and for clothing. The grocery shopping pattern illustrates a village-centered activity; the clothing shopping pattern illustrates a larger town-centered activity. There would obviously be merit in considering these trading patterns when planning for centralization of school facilities.

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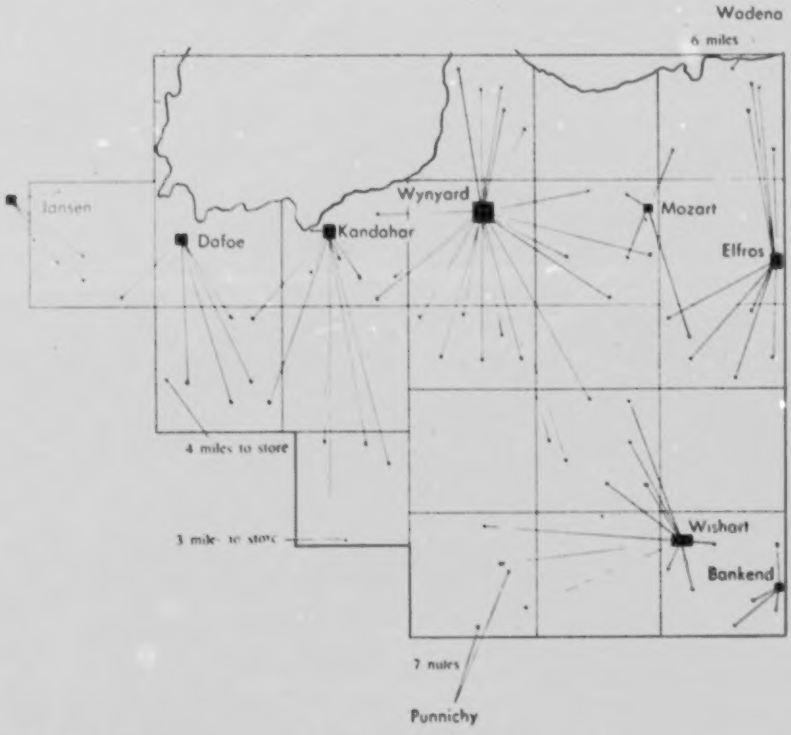
[11] *Your School District*, Report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization, National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D.C., 1948, p. 72.

FIGURE 19A. GROCERY SHOPPING PATTERN OF A SAMPLE OF FARM FAMILIES*



SOURCE: Field Survey, Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.
* Random sample.

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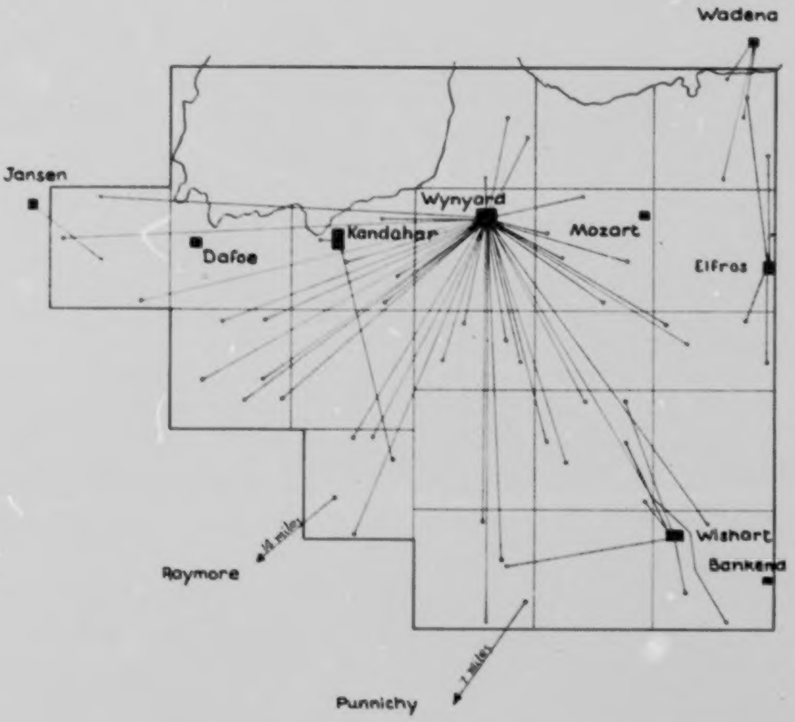
[12] Recognizing the difficulties involved in transporting small children relatively long distances, the National Commission on School District Reorganization in the United States suggested "several elementary attendance areas within a large community district; . . . and that such attendance areas should serve well recognized neighbourhoods and the school should be located in the hamlet which is the neighbourhood center." *Ibid.*

FIGURE 19B. CLOTHING SHOPPING PATTERN OF A SAMPLE OF FARM FAMILIES*



SOURCE: Field Survey, Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.

* Random sample. In addition to those indicated, eighteen of the seventy-four farmers interviewed obtained most of their clothing by mail order.

A higher level of centralization might be devised for high school students in the Assiniboia unit to achieve larger secondary school enrolments in several ways. Either the Verwood, Readlyn, and Viceroy high school enrolments could be consolidated, or the Verwood, Readlyn, and Spring Valley high school students could attend a central school at Crane Valley. Or as another alternative, Viceroy and some of the surrounding districts might best be served by the centralized school at Bengough in an adjacent unit. In addition, the town of Assiniboia is accessible to a large portion of the unit and could serve as the center of the attendance area for a large portion of the unit. Alternative consolidations might be devised, but some type of adjustment will have to be made if high school enrolments are to be increased to provide suitable education at reasonable cost. While the diversity of conditions throughout Saskatchewan makes it unlikely that suggested minimum enrolments can

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be attained in all instances, the optimum level of consolidation will still provide improved educational opportunities.

If larger attendance areas in the future are designed to permit two levels of centralization, the central locations for high schools must be carefully selected. Just as it is important to have elementary attendance areas coincide with the emerging village-centered neighbourhood area, so it is essential to have high school attendance areas coincide with larger town-centered areas of association. Public support for regrouping of school facilities will be increased if larger attendance areas conform to community patterns of association and also provide the basis for improved elementary and secondary education.

Financing of Capital Costs

The discussion of financing as a factor in centralization sketched the problem of meeting the high initial capital costs of centralization. At present, these costs are financed from several sources — current revenue, debentures, and the provincial revolving loan fund during the first five years of a unit's life. But it is questionable whether these sources will continue to be adequate. School districts have encountered difficulties in borrowing for capital construction, and numerous units, no longer eligible for loans from the provincial revolving fund, may also have difficulty in making long-term loans for capital expenditures.

Several alternatives might facilitate the financing of the capital costs of centralization. A single agency might be established to market all debentures of larger school units so that units would not be competing with each other for sources of funds. If this were not deemed feasible or effective, consideration might be given to the establishment of a permanent provincial revolving fund from which capital costs could be financed. Finally, federal aid for school construction and transportation should be explored. Federal aid for these purposes would be in line with the principle of the Dominion-Provincial Vocational Assistance Agreement and would operate to equalize educational opportunity among the provinces as well as raise the standard of educational facilities throughout the nation. Regardless of the method of financing adopted, the future development of centralization will depend in large measure on adequate and assured financing of the initial capital costs of centralization.

Ratepayer Participation

In the past, all ratepayers had a voice in school affairs and were able to present their views to the local school board readily. Ratepayer participation accounted for much of the vitality of rural education. Recent adjustments in the organization of education have endeavoured to preserve the role of ratepayers in school affairs, but in a few anomalous situations some ratepayers may not have avenues for direct participation in the life of the central school.

At present each school district, whether operating or not, is expected to retain a school board. Each district through its board and sub-unit trustee is represented in the unit. In some districts that have not been operating for years, an organized board is not retained, and these districts have no representation at the sub-unit level. But irrespective of whether a non-operating district maintains an organized board, the ratepayers have no direct participation in the life of the school which their students attend. Furthermore, if the central school is not included in the larger unit, the ratepayers in rural school districts have no channels for direct or indirect participation in the affairs of the school which their children attend.

In 1953 the School Act was amended to permit the formation of a central board of trustees for any two or more contiguous districts in a unit. Through central boards, several districts involved in a larger attendance area may give some direction to the management of central schools. By 1955 about 60 central boards had been formed but, since there are 328 larger attendance areas, the great majority of ratepayers included in them still have no direct voice in the affairs of central schools. To provide an avenue of participation and to increase ratepayer responsibility to the central operating school, it would appear advantageous to dissolve the school boards in districts served by central schools and substitute central boards in all larger attendance areas.

Planning Centralization

The foregoing analysis indicates the many factors to be taken into account by any school board which is called upon to undertake a program of school relocation. Saskatchewan is just at the beginning of transition from a system rooted in the one-room country school to a village- and town-centered educational system. Before the final pattern is established, however, difficult decisions involving millions of dollars for new buildings and conveyance systems must be made. Once a new pattern is established, the future opportunities for rural youth to obtain an effective education and the future structure of educational costs will largely have been determined. The responsibility now being assumed by unit boards is thus of critical importance to the welfare of rural Saskatchewan; every possible precaution must be taken to avoid costly errors.

In view of the difficult adjustments required in the relocation of existing schools, accurate information on which to base decisions is fundamental. With respect to the unit or the larger attendance area, the following are some of the more vital questions to be answered: What is the present and future age distribution of the population under 19 years of age? What is the existing degree of mechanization? What adjustments can be anticipated in size of farm units? What trends exist in the movement of farm families to residences in villages or towns? What trends exist in the growth or decline of village and town populations? What changes are taking place in the rural residence pattern? How stable is the tax base?

These and other questions have a direct bearing on the future school system in any larger school unit. Without adequate answers any unit board will be handicapped in making sound judgments about appropriate locations for new school buildings and in establishing transportation routes. Once the long-term pattern is seen in broad outline it becomes possible to estimate the probable costs—costs which then become the basis for carefully prepared long-term budgets.

It is difficult to determine the extent to which units are currently undertaking adequate studies prior to school relocation. Information from recently organized school trustee institutes indicates that trustees recognize the seriousness of their responsibilities and the urgent need for technical advice and assistance. To date technical planning resources are not available to units, either in the Department of Education or in the University of Saskatchewan.

It should be recognized that a more scientific approach will not necessarily remove all of the hazards and difficulties in planning for sound centralization. In the first place, the sources of information on which to base predictions will often be inadequate. In the second place, information alone will not overcome the resistance of ratepayers — resistance which often makes economies difficult to realize. The one-room school is part of the neighbourhood tradition and it will not be relinquished easily. Both problems will be minimized, however, and much more rapid and rational progress will be assured if every effort is made to assemble accurate information as the basis for decisions.

* * *

In summary, the future development of centralization should be designed to assure maximum educational and social advantages. The planning of larger attendance areas to accord with community patterns of association is fundamental. Beyond the proper definition of larger attendance areas, levels of centralization for elementary and secondary students should be separate. Satisfactory enrolments and respect for the distances that elementary students can be transported require different sized attendance areas for elementary and high school students. Also, channels should be devised to assure maximum participation of all ratepayers in the life of the central school. Proper definition of larger attendance areas, sound financing of capital costs, and assurance of ratepayer participation in centralized schools—all guided by sound planning based on accurate information —can make of centralization a vehicle, both economical and effective, for the provision of high quality education for rural students.

Summary

Impetus to Centralization

Loss of population in rural school districts, coupled with the shortage of qualified teachers, has provided the main impetus for regrouping school facilities. As experience has been gained, however, the additional opportunity for improving the quality of education through regrouping has won increasing recognition.

Extent of Centralization

By June, 1953, 25 per cent of the organized rural school districts in the province were closed and the pupils from these districts were being conveyed to multiple-room schools in hamlets, villages, towns, and central rural locations. Regrouping of school facilities has been more extensive in the prairie region with its large straight grain farms than in the park region with smaller diversified farms. Regrouping has in general occurred on the basis of the enlarged community being developed by farm people for trade, services, and social life. Nevertheless, in many areas where centralization has occurred total enrolments per class have not been greatly increased, indicating that central schools are located in areas of relatively sparse population containing relatively small centers.

Factors Associated with Centralization

Density of Population. The decline in density of farm population, closely related to the pattern of farming, is a basic determining factor in the decision to close rural schools and convey pupils to central schools. Population decline in the future will have its most significant impact on centralization in those areas where one-room school populations are already approaching the necessary minimum.

Supply of Qualified Teachers. The shortage of qualified teachers in postwar years has led to centralization in many school districts. If th[illegible]ing standards of education are maintained, on the average one teacher can be saved for every two rural schools closed. Conditions in centralized schools should be more favourable for attracting and retaining qualified teachers than conditions in one-room rural schools.

Facilities and Transportation. The desire for well-equipped modern schools and particularly for high school facilities has contributed to centralization in some areas. A problem in the regrouping of school facilities has been the necessity of providing transportation. Reluctance of parents to entrust their children to school buses, high capital costs of buses and bombardiers, and the poor quality of rural roads have presented obstacles to centralization.

Financing. Against the costs of centralizing must be weighed the costs of retaining the one-room rural school. Evidence suggests that centralization offers net financial benefits. Economies in operating costs will increase as more rural schools are closed relative to new facilities required. But substantial capital investment is required for central school buildings and transportation equipment.

Administration. The administrative and financial resources of larger school units have facilitated the regrouping of school facilities as the need for centralization within the units has appeared.

Ratepayer Attitudes. Ratepayer attitudes affect the demand for centralization and the support given to the development of centralized schools and conveyance systems. Demand for increased regrouping of school facilities has been significant only in those areas already experienced in conveying children to central schools.

Standards of Education. Although centralization was undertaken primarily as an adjustment to loss of population and shortage of teachers, it is now recognized as an economical means of providing improved standards of education under Saskatchewan conditions.

Future Development of Centralization

Because decisions made by unit boards today will shape the pattern of the costs of education and educational opportunities for many years to come, these boards are faced with critical responsibilities. To plan the rational relocation of schools requires accurate information concerning the social and economic trends in any given area. No facilities exist, however, either in the Department of Education or in the University of Saskatchewan, to extend to unit boards the technical assistance necessary to obtain the required information. Provision of such assistance would appear to be essential if costly mistakes are to be avoided.

In order to secure maximum educational advantages from centralization, its future development should be concerned with (1) the proper definition of larger attendance areas, (2) the financing of capital costs of centralization, and (3) the assurance of ratepayer participation in the affairs of the central school.

1) Larger attendance areas should not only conform to the enlarged community within which rural people associate but should be designed to assure adequate enrolments in elementary and secondary schools. Two levels of centralization might be desirable. The level of centralization for elementary students might coincide with the smaller village-centered neighbourhood so as to obviate excessive travelling to school by younger children. The level of centralization for high school students might coincide with a larger area of association to ensure adequate enrolment.

2) Present sources for financing the high initial capital costs of centralization may not be adequate. Consideration might be given to development of a central agency to market debentures of school units, to a permanent provincial revolving loan fund, and to federal aid for school construction and transportation.

3) Channels should be devised to assure the participation of all ratepayers in the affairs of the central school.

CHAPTER V

Larger Units of Administration

The economic and social forces that revolutionized farming methods and altered rural life have also caused revision in the organization and administration of education. The decline in rural population, financial disparities, the enlarged rural community, and increased interest in higher standards of education all led to an administration that was not tied to the financial and administrative limitations of the small local school districts.

HISTORY OF EFFORTS TO REORGANIZE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The history of education in Saskatchewan is punctuated by reports of individuals, school boards, committees, and commissions on the need for reorganization of the local school district system. In 1915, the Saskatchewan Education Commission recommended the establishment of a system of consolidated school districts.[1] In 1918, the Foght report recommended larger units of administration, co-ordination of municipal and school administrations through a single secretary to serve both agencies, and centralization of high schools in towns or villages.[2] No action was taken on Foght's recommendations because of ratepayer fear of loss of local authority and because of the costs of consolidation. Through the early 1920's, the Teachers' Alliance explored the question of reorganization extensively.

The Government in 1912 enacted legislation authorizing consolidated districts,[3] and in 1928 the School Act was amended to permit the formation of union boards.[4] Under this amendment, contiguous school districts could dissolve and merge into a large union district, but the union board had no power to equalize taxes or raise revenues from the entire area under its jurisdiction without ratepayer consent. The Act was also amended to permit centralization of high school facilities and establishment of conveyance systems.

No union districts were formed under the Union Board Act, and in 1932 the Government appointed a committee to study school finance. The committee, according to its terms of reference, was to address itself to the question of the equitable distribution of government aid. The committee recommended the establishment of larger units to introduce administrative economies, to provide a more adequate tax base, and to heighten efficiency through closer professional supervision.[5] Suggesting that larger units should be defined to follow the boundaries of school districts, the committee urged that the location of towns and villages be taken into account and that the units include varying numbers of school districts depending on settlement conditions.

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[1] *Report of the Saskatchewan Education Commission,* Regina, 1915.

[2] H. W. Foght, *A Survey of Education,* Regina, 1918.

[3] Stats. of Sask., 1912-13, c. 35, s. 1.

[4] Stats. of Sask., 1928-29, c. 45, s. 7.

During the years following the provision for union boards, the Teachers' Federation and Trustees' Association considered the question of reorganization. A research committee appointed by the Federation in 1935 recommended the establishment of larger units, and the Federation, believing larger units would bring improvements in education and teaching conditions, led in the effort to reorganize school administration. The Trustees' Association at first opposed larger units, although some individual trustees and school boards were sympathetic. In 1937, however, a research committee of the Trustees' Association recommended the establishment of three experimental units.

With increased support for reorganization, the Government appointed another committee to study school administration.[6] In the course of its investigation, the committee asked school boards to conduct a poll among their ratepayers on reorganization, and the vote of the ratepayers was overwhelmingly against reorganization. The committee in 1939 therefore limited its recommendation to the establishment of three experimental units. Thus, the Teachers' Federation, the Trustees' Association, and the special committee of the Government all favoured establishing some experimental units.

No experimental units were established, but in 1940 the Legislature passed the School Divisions Act, which authorized the Minister of Education to establish large school divisions on the request of ratepayers. Only in the Swift Current area was any preliminary work undertaken to establish a school division under this legislation. Provincial organizations such as the Saskatchewan Homemakers and the United Farmers therefore urged the establishment of larger units.

In 1943, the Teachers' Federation and the Trustees' Association jointly requested the Government to select three areas and establish experimental larger units. In 1944, the convention of the School Trustees' Association voted to undertake a program to inform ratepayers of the proposed larger units. Late in 1944, at a special session of the Legislature, the Government repealed the School Divisions Act and passed the Larger School Units Act.[7]

Under the Act, the Minister of Education was empowered to establish larger school units in areas including approximately 80 school districts. Fourteen larger school units were formed in the first year after the passage of the Act. Since 1945, 42 additional units have been formed.

The Larger School Units Act was thus passed thirty years after the need for reorganization of school administration was first expressed.

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[5] "Report of Government Committee on School Finance and School Grants," *The School Trustee*, Vol. 4, No. 2, May, 1933.

[6] *Report of the Committee on School Administration to the Minister of Education for Saskatchewan*, Regina, 1939.

[7] Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41.

With higher standards of education, decreasing population density, a changing pattern of community association, increasing interdependence of rural and urban people, and regrouping of school facilities, the individual district system became increasingly unsatisfactory. The tax base of the small districts was inadequate, and inequities in tax burden among school districts militated against equality of educational opportunity. The small district was unable to meet the requirements of its students for high school facilities. It was also unable to take advantage economically of professional supervision and to institute uniform administrative practices for larger attendance areas. When the majority of ratepayers and trustees became convinced of the necessity of larger area organization to provide an adequate taxing and administrative unit, the Larger School Units Act was passed.

Provisions of the Larger School Units Act

The Larger School Units Act empowered the Minister of Education "to establish school units consisting in each case of such a number of rural or rural and village public school districts as employ approximately eighty teachers.[8] In 1949, an amendment authorized the inclusion in newly established units "of such number of rural and village public school districts and public school districts in towns with a population of under 2,000, or one or more kinds of such districts as employ approximately eighty teachers."[9]

Under the original Act, the formation of units was undertaken without a vote of the resident ratepayers in any proposed unit, although the Minister of Education could recommend that a vote be held. In 1945, the Act was amended to require that a vote be held before the establishment of a unit, provided a petition signed by 20 per cent of the ratepayers in a majority of districts was forwarded to the Minister of Education within 30 days after filing a notice of intention to establish a unit.[10]

Unlike legislation in other areas where larger units of school administration have been authorized, the Larger School Units Act in Saskatchewan made provision for the disorganization of larger units after a trial period. The Act stipulated that disorganization should be put to a public vote if more than 15 per cent of the resident ratepayers signed a petition requesting a vote within six months after five years of experience with the unit.[11]

For purposes of administration and for electing unit board trustees, the units are divided into sub-units, each containing approximately 15 school districts. Local districts elect delegates (not necessarily local trustees) to the sub-unit meeting. If the district has not more than two rooms in operation, the district board elects one delegate; if it has three, four, or five rooms, the district board elects two delegates, and if more than five rooms, it elects three delegates. If the unit includes a district with ten rooms or more, the district constitutes a sub-unit, and the local district board elects a trustee directly to the unit board.[12] Candidates for unit trustee are nominated from the individual districts in a sub-unit; if more than one candidate is nominated, the delegates to the sub-unit meeting elect the unit trustee. Under these conditions ratepayers at large have no direct voice in choosing the trustee who will represent them.

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[8] Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41, s. 3.

[9] Stats. of Sask., 1949, c. 60, s. 2.

[10] Stats. of Sask., 1945, c. 67, s. 2.

[11] Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41, s. 8. Votes have been held under this provision in six units — Estevan, Milestone, Kindersley, Moose Jaw, Willowbunch, and Cupar. In each case the unit was retained.

Each unit board trustee is elected to office for two years except trustees representing even-numbered sub-units in the first year of unit establishment, in which case the term of office is for one year. Unit trustees in the units formed in 1944 were not entitled to any remuneration. An amendment in 1946, however, authorized unit board trustees to vote themselves a remuneration of $6.00 per diem for each meeting attended up to a maximum of 15 meetings per year and ten cents a mile for travelling expenses to board meetings.[13] In 1953, the authorized per diem allowance for meetings was increased to $8.00,[14] and in 1954 the maximum number of meetings was increased from 15 to 24 a year.[15] By resolution of the board, the trustees may be compensated at the same rate for expenses while conducting school business in the sub-unit. The number of days for which expenses may be paid was increased from a maximum of 12 days per year to one day per district in the sub-unit—approximately 15.[16]

On establishment of a unit, the assets and liabilities of the constituent school districts are assigned to the unit. Since 1953, the unit board has had the power to sell, lease, or dispose of real property of a district or to move a school building within or beyond the boundaries of a district.[17]

Surplus funds of a district at the time of its inclusion in a unit are held in credit on the unit books for district expenditure beyond the normal services supplied by the unit board. If the surplus funds are not used by the local district within a period of six years, they are transferred to the account of the unit board for its use. Some criticism has been levelled at individual districts on the ground that before becoming part of a unit they have tended to spend their surplus funds, sometimes unwisely, rather than allow the money to be credited to the account of the unit. Such a practice is possible, of course, only during the first few months while unit administration is being established. Apparently the practice was not very prevalent in the units formed before 1946, and the criticism applies only to a few transactions in some of the more recently established units.

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[12] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 11.

[13] Stats. of Sask., 1946, c. 52, s. 6.

[14] Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 66, s. 3.

[15] Stats. of Sask., 1954, c. 47, s. 4.

[16] Stats. of Sask., 1947, c. 60, s. 2. In sub-units with fewer than five school districts, the trustee may receive the allowance for a maximum of five days per year.

[17] Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 6, s. 5.

ESTABLISHMENT OF LARGER SCHOOL UNITS

Geographic Definition

The Act provided only one criterion for the delineation of larger school units—that each unit should include a number of rural and village public school districts employing approximately 80 teachers. Starting with this requirement, the Department of Education drafted a map outlining 66 units. The general criteria used in establishing the boundaries for the first draft of the units were:

1) Inclusion of approximately 80 districts, whether operating or not;

2) Inclusion of a reasonable administrative area;

3) Consideration of natural barriers, such as the Qu'Appelle and Saskatchewan Rivers;

4) Consideration of the location of existing railways and highways. In the Swift Current unit, where local people had defined boundaries for a proposed school division under the School Divisions Act of 1940, these boundaries were retained for the larger school units map. The Department of Education attempted wherever possible to take into account special interests and local wishes in the definition of boundaries.

The draft map was then circulated among school superintendents and other interested persons for study and discussion, and the map was altered to conform with suggested revisions. Some of the revisions were designed to make school units conform more accurately with areas of local interest. For example, the Regina east unit was revised to coincide with a geographic area of interest to a church group. Although unit boundaries were thus established by the Department of Education, the Act permitted any village or rural school district to be transferred to an adjacent unit. Provision was also made for transfer of certain districts from one sub-unit to another.

On the basis of the revised map, the Department of Education proceeded to establish 12 larger units scattered throughout the province. Two additional areas requested the formation of units at that time. After "straw votes" in each proposed unit indicating the support of the ratepayers, 14 units were established in 1944.

After the establishment of these 14 units, the total number of units was reduced from 66 to 60 to introduce economies in administration and supervision and consequently to make more money available for other educational purposes. A new map was therefore required. Since it was unwise to redraft the boundaries of the first 14 units that were already operating, the remaining 52 units were remapped to constitute 46 units.

The mapping of the school units did not take into account the boundary lines of service areas other than those of school districts. No attempt was made to have unit boundaries conform with rural municipal or township lines. Conformance of school unit and municipal boundaries would have entailed the transfer of a large number of parcels of land from one school district to another—a complex administrative task. Varying mill rates between school districts or proposed units were also a factor. The objective was to form larger school units that would solve the school problem without creating new problems in the relationship of local government agencies.

The Act provided that a distinguishing name and number be assigned to each unit.[18] When the units were finally mapped, names were assigned by the Department of Education. But the decision as to the location of the administrative center of the unit was left entirely to the unit board. In most cases, the town after which the unit was named had banking and telephone facilities, was generally accessible to all areas of the unit by road or rail, and consequently was nearly always chosen by the Board as the location for its office.

After the first 14 units had been established in 1944 and the Act had been amended to allow for a vote, the Department of Education proceeded to establish units in the rest of the province. Petitions for votes were received from 15 of the proposed unit areas, and no action to establish units was taken in these areas. All other proposed areas were established as units so that by midsummer of 1946, 45 units had been established. Of the 15 proposed unit areas that petitioned for a vote in 1945, 11 have since become established as units, and four remain unorganized at the present time. The Superintendency Trustees' Associations in these 11 areas had continued to study the larger unit proposal and when satisfied of its wisdom, the Associations worked towards gaining acceptance by boards in the areas. The Department of Education gave guidance to help ratepayers and district boards make the decision.

Unorganized Areas

The four school superintendencies not established as larger units of administration are Melville South, Indian Head, Regina, and Rosthern. In 1951, the Rosthern Trustees' Association and in 1953 the Melville Trustees' Association, believing that a vote on the establishment of larger units would be favourable, requested the establishment of units in their superintendencies. But the proposal was defeated in both areas.

In the Indian Head and Regina superintendencies no request has been made for unit establishment, and therefore no vote has been taken. Informal discussion with ratepayers in these areas on the possibility of unit organization and reports from trustees meetings revealed the following economic and social reasons for reluctance to form units:

1) Assessment varies greatly within the Indian Head and Regina superintendencies, and consequently levies required to operate schools in the different parts of each superintendency vary. A significant number of ratepayers in the high-assessed parts of each superintendency oppose reorganization on the ground that it might raise their school taxes.

2) Some established units have provided services which cost more than the education provided in the small districts. The improved standards of education made possible by increased expenditures have not been recognized or appreciated by some ratepayers.

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[18] Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41, s. 4(*a*).

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3) Where town-centered facilities are available for high school education, it is more economical for a rural district to pay a fee up to $70 per pupil to an urban district[19] than to make other provisions for the high school education of its students.

4) Since establishment of a larger unit depends on the positive support of the Trustees' Association, local prejudices and local interests are important in resistance of trustees to reorganization.

Although the organization of the entire province into larger units would contribute to equality of educational opportunity and to uniform administration, the Department of Education has no policy for extending larger units contrary to the wishes of local people. Indications are, however, that much support for larger units exists in the four unorganized areas, particularly in the towns and villages where high school facilities are provided for rural students with little compensation from rural school districts. In the Melville South superintendency, all towns except Lemberg and Abernethy voted for reorganization in 1953. In the Indian Head superintendency, the Sintaluta community brief submitted to the Commission, which was approved by people from Indian Head, Wolseley, and Sintaluta, recommended "the organization of the larger school unit to deal with and relieve the financial pressure in many areas." The northern parts of the Regina superintendency appear to favour the formation of the unit. The Lumsden community in its brief to the Commission recommended that the school problems in the area could be tackled more satisfactorily by a larger unit and that it was the responsibility of each ratepayer to work for this administrative reorganization.

In addition to the difficulties created within unorganized larger unit areas, the existence of such areas also introduces complications in the administration of education throughout Saskatchewan. It means the provision of differing systems of grants for schools in organized larger units and in the local school districts of unorganized units. The advantages of uniformity in local administrative arrangements is such that serious consideration should be given to the immediate formation of larger units in presently unorganized areas without recourse to local approval. The larger unit system is now well established in the province and there seems little point in a continuation of the presently unorganized areas.

Variations in Composition of Units

Although the same basic criteria were applied in the formation of all larger school units, great variations exist in the composition of units. The inclusion of entire school districts introduced irregular boundaries, and the remapping undertaken after the establishment of the first 14 units aggravated these irregularities, introducing further discrepancies in unit sizes. The addition of town districts and the decrease in the number of operating rural districts contributed to further variations in administrative and supervisory responsibility.

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[19] Stats. of Sask., 1954, c. 46, s. 19.

Table 31 shows the great variations among units in terms of assessment, number of districts, number of operating districts, number of rooms, and number of students. Variations in assessment are of least importance to the units, however, since equalization grants offset the differences in assessment. The Melville North Unit (No. 26) includes 68 districts, while the Moose Jaw Unit (No. 22) contains 122 districts. Moose Jaw has an assessment three times that of Melville. In terms of the number of school rooms, these two units are comparable: Melville has 87 rooms compared with 103 in Moose Jaw. But the number of students is in inverse ratio to the number of districts and assessment. In terms of operating districts, the Kindersley Unit (No. 34) has 34 compared with 96 in the Wadena Unit (No. 46). In terms of rooms included, the variation ranges from 49 in the Eastend Unit (No. 8) to 149 in the Wadena Unit (No. 46). Student populations in this selection of units range from 688 to 3,684.

The ideal size of a larger unit of administration has been expressed as that which has the pupils and resources to offer a comprehensive program of education from kindergarten through high school and to provide for post high school and adult education at unit cost; is able to maintain competent staff; and can finance without undue tax burden.[20] In addition, the size should

TABLE 31. COMPARISON OF SIZE OF SELECTED LARGER SCHOOL UNITS IN SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

School Unit Number	Number of School Districts*		Number of Rooms			Number of Students*	1951 Assessment
	Total	Number Operating	Elementary	High School	Total		
							Dollars
34	82	34	51	13	64	1,159	14,539,468
8	89	40	45	4	49	688	8,341,746
31	96	48	53	8	61	911	11,841,168
26	68	68	79	8	87	2,009	6,698,223
6	121	69	79	14	93	1,528	19,039,342
32	109	76	95	17	112	1,728	14,852,699
22	122	85	93	10	103	1,492	23,559,083
63	98	90	108	12	120	2,919	8,160,387
46	98	96	130	19	149	3,684	13,410,322

SOURCE: *Annual Report*, Department of Education.
* June, 1951.

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[20] Francis S. Chase and John E. Baker, "Rural Education Today" in *Education in Rural Communities*, Fifty-First Yearbook, Part II, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1952, p. 96.

be that in which ratepayers can effectively participate in program planning and policy making. To be sure, the ideal size of a larger unit depends to some extent on the criteria employed. School superintendents whose supervision extends to all school rooms in the superintendency have a different point of view from that of school unit secretaries whose administrative jurisdiction is limited to those schools included in unit administration.

For some purposes school units may be too large, but for other purposes they may be too small. In the west central zone of the province, for example, six larger units have organized a joint committee for purposes of achieving economy in building programs. A zone committee is empowered by the Larger School Units Act to engage the services of an architect, engineer, or building supervisor to plan and supervise school buildings and also to purchase building supplies and equipment in bulk. The West Central Zone Committee has acquired an office and staff and engaged a resident architect. Its budget in 1955 was approximately $13,000. Participating units contribute to the budget mainly on the basis of assessment. Savings to units have been substantial and the Committee has discussed the possibility of applying mass buying techniques to the purchase of school operating supplies as well as building materials.

School unit officials questioned in a Commission survey—superintendents and unit secretaries—were divided in their opinion as to what constitutes a satisfactory size of unit. Sixty-two per cent of the school superintendents believed that the "units are of the most suitable size," while 28 per cent believed they are not.[21] Affirmative responses from widely dispersed areas indicated that the units are of adequate size for effective administration, although in some cases they are too large for effective supervision. The main determinant of suitable size seems to be a large enough area to provide an adequate assessment for the educational programs that are necessary.

Negative respondents felt that there is too great a variation among units in the number of classrooms included. Some believed that the degree of centralization and consolidation of facilities should be considered in determining the geographic area of a unit. A revision of units on this basis, it was pointed out, would tend to equalize superintendents' duties.

Unit secretaries responding to the same question showed a similar division of opinion.[22] Sixty-five per cent considered unit size suitable, while 29 per cent did not. Negative respondents among secretaries indicated that the units are too large for effective, economic administration and supervision. In most cases, these respondents were from units that had considerably more than 80 districts, were located in areas where school districts were widely scattered, or were in units with poor communication facilities within the unit.

Although school units may have been satisfactorily designed in 1944 in terms of administrative and supervisory areas, considerable sentiment exists today that changes in the rural environment and the structure of rural education require some readjustment in unit boundaries.

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[21] Appendix VI, Questionnaire submitted to superintendents.

[22] Appendix VI, Questionnaire submitted to secretaries of larger units.

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Relationship of Larger Units to Consolidated and Town Districts

Consolidated school districts are large school districts including several rural districts and a village or town district. Historically, they have provided conveyance for students in the area. Saskatchewan has 42 consolidated school districts, the majority of which are located in the western part of the province.[23]

The Larger School Units Act provided that consolidated school districts might be included in units by agreement.[24] Although all the consolidated districts lie within the boundaries of larger units, prior to 1954 only one consolidated district had been admitted into a larger unit. During 1954, however, nine more consolidated districts were included in units. The exclusion of large consolidated districts located within the boundaries of the unit tends to obstruct long-term planning of centralized school facilities.

Town school districts, like rural and consolidated districts, have traditionally been independent administrative and attendance areas. Town and village districts have provided high school facilities, particularly for senior high school students, for the majority of rural students in adjacent rural districts. With less secondary education in rural schools and increased regrouping of all educational facilities in urban centers, the need for unified administration of rural and urban education has become clear.

The original Larger School Units Act included all rural and village[25] public school districts and permitted the inclusion of town districts, consolidated school districts, and separate school districts by agreement between the unit and the district.[26] In 1947, the Act was amended to permit the inclusion of high school districts by agreement.[27] The agreement, which required approval by the Minister of Education, specified the terms of inclusion, such as the rate of taxation to be imposed in the district. If 25 per cent of the ratepayers in the district petitioned for a vote on inclusion of the district, the district board was required to hold a poll before entering into the agreement.

In 1949, the Act was amended to provide for the automatic inclusion in units of all town districts with population under 2,000 except towns in consolidated districts.[28] Town districts of more than 2,000 population were not automatically included lest the interests of large town districts overbalance the interests of rural areas. But if a town district of under 2,000 population, or a village district is located within a consolidated district, it is not automatically included in a unit. These small urban centers may enter the unit only by agreement.

Town school districts exist in 99 Saskatchewan towns. Their relation to the larger units of administration is as follows:

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[23] See Figure 17, Chap. IV.

[24] Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41, s. 51.

[25] If a village became a town after inclusion in a unit, it was still retained in the unit. Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41, s. 59.

[26] Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41, s. 51.

[27] Stats. of Sask., 1947, c. 60, s. 6.

[28] Stats. of Sask., 1949, c. 60, s. 2.

1) Fourteen town school districts were automatically included in units after the 1949 amendment to the Act.

2) Ten towns were villages when included and have been retained in units.

3) Forty-one town districts entered units voluntarily by agreement with unit boards.

4) Twenty-two town school districts are within the geographic boundaries of units but are not included in unit administration.

5) Twelve town school districts are in areas not as yet organized as school units.

Town school districts of more than 2,000 population may be included in units by agreement.[29] Of the nine town school districts with more than 2,000 population, three have been included in units—Biggar, Nipawin, and Tisdale. Of the remaining six—Estevan, Humboldt, Kamsack, Lloydminster, Melfort, and Melville—all except Melville have secondary school districts. The Melfort, Humboldt, Eastend, North Battleford, and Weyburn school units have agreements with secondary school districts covering financing, building, and the provision of instruction for high school students from the units. Where no such agreements are made, the unit pays a fee for each of its high school students attending secondary school districts.

With the trend towards centralization of facilities and with the development of composite schools providing academic courses and some technical and vocational classes, the need for close co-operation between school units and secondary school districts has become more pronounced. As was noted earlier, since 1947 secondary school districts have been permitted to join units by agreement.

Town school districts have voluntarily entered larger school units in order to provide better education for their students. In many cases, town school districts are burdened with supplying education and facilities for pupils from surrounding districts. The unit conveys the students, pays high school allowances, and is directly responsible for increasing the enrolment. In order to assure adequate facilities for all students, town districts have applied for inclusion in the unit. Some town districts, however, have applied for inclusion in units but have not been accepted. A unit before entering into an agreement with a district usually considers the condition of school district buildings, facilities, and finances in the district.

Instead of joining a unit, some town districts have tried to solve their financial problems by increasing non-resident fees or by extending the boundaries of town districts. Neither measure has been effective. With respect to fees, the Secondary Education Act fixes the maximum fee which may be charged to a non-resident student at $70 per school year.[30] With respect to expansion of boundaries, the rural areas adjacent to towns do not wish to be included in town districts, since the mill rates average about five mills higher in towns than in the rural areas of the larger units. The difference between urban tax rates and rural tax rates in superintendencies included in larger units is even greater, and so expansion of boundaries of town districts in these cases is not a realistic solution.

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[29] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 60.
[30] Stats. of Sask., 1954, c. 45, s. 2.

Changes in the rural environment, the regrouping of school facilities, and the provision of secondary education in urban centers have made imperative closer integration of rural and urban school administrations. The fact that many urban school districts and consolidated districts operate independently creates problems in the satisfactory administration of educational programs over a wide area. Officials of the Department of Education believe that larger school units cannot develop to their maximum effectiveness unless town and consolidated districts are included in the units. No program exists, however, to include all towns and consolidated districts; their inclusion depends on local initiative. Although great strides have been made in the administration of rural education by the formation of larger school units, the unification of the administration of all education, both rural and urban, would heighten efficiency and tend towards the elimination of inequalities in the burden of financing education.

FINANCING IN LARGER UNITS

The financial problems of the small local school districts contributed to the formation of larger units. Varying agricultural resources within school districts led to varying assessments, and from these varying financial resources similar educational obligations had to be met.

To assure minimum standards of education, the province has always made basic grants to school districts. In the depression years of the 1930's, the basic grants, together with what local taxes could be collected, were insufficient to meet the requirements of many school districts. Many school districts were closing because of low enrolments so that ratepayers in some districts were paying a minimum for education and ratepayers in other districts were paying high taxes. In appointing the committee on school finance and school grants in 1932, the Provincial Government indicated that increased provincial support for rural schools was dependent on assurances of effective use of local funds for education. In 1939, equalization grants were instituted to eliminate the gross inequalities in financial resources among school districts.

But it was clear that the small districts faced serious difficulties in providing modern education. In the effort to provide comparable services, school districts were forced to impose widely varying tax rates. Furthermore, the demands of modern education required a larger and more stable tax base than that of the small districts. The larger units would make possible equalization of educational costs for taxpayers in the larger area and consequently equalization of tax levies. The decrease in the number of borrowing and spending agencies in the field of rural education could reduce costs, and a single administration over a large area could introduce economies and efficiencies that the small districts were incapable of achieving.

In this section, the financial operations of larger units are reviewed —their taxing authority, their borrowing powers, and the functioning of equalization grants in larger units.

Taxing Authority of Larger Units

The Larger School Units Act transferred the responsibility for school financing from the individual school district to the larger unit board. The unit board establishes its entire financial needs for the year's operation, prepares a budget, and determines the amount which must be collected locally. The unit board may increase the basic tax for the year's operation in order to finance capital expenditures and to accumulate cash reserves.[31] With respect to additional amounts for capital expenditures, the Act stipulates that a unit board may impose a tax for sufficient funds to finance any capital expenditure for which a school district under the School Act might borrow and also to provide dormitory facilities. Prior to 1955 there was no statutory limitation on the amount that could be levied for capital works; a 1955 amendment to the Larger School Units Act, however, limits the amount to be levied to a sum equal to three mills on the total taxable assessment, unless a greater amount is authorized by the Local Government Board.[32] With respect to the accumulation of cash reserves, the unit board may increase the basic tax for the year's operation by an amount not more than 20 per cent of the current year's requirements until such time as a fund equal to one year's expenditures has been accumulated.

After the unit board has determined the total tax for the unit, it fixes the uniform tax rate in mills. The procedure for unit financing is thus different from the procedure for financing by individual school districts. Larger unit boards fix the mill rate, and the municipality is responsible for levying and collecting the taxes; individual school districts requisition a total amount, and the municipality fixes the tax rate and levies and collects the taxes. To the larger unit, the municipality remits funds monthly as they are collected; to the individual district, the municipality remits the appropriate portion of the requisition quarterly, even if it must borrow to do so. Thus the municipality assumes the costs of any necessary borrowing on behalf of the district, but not on behalf of the larger unit. Provision is made for varying the tax rate in certain cases: (1) in a hamlet or village in a school district, or in the rural portion of any district containing a hamlet or village district, or (2) in a town school district which was included in a unit otherwise than by agreement,[33] or in rural portions of such a district.

The unit board then notifies the tax collection authorities of the tax rates it has established. It also informs the boards of the districts containing hamlets, villages, or towns of the uniform tax rate and of any special rate or rates applicable to them. The town council, rural municipal council, or local ratepayers' association in a local improvement district may appeal to the Minister of Education against the tax rate set for a town (included without an agreement), village, hamlet, or rural part of a district which includes a town, village, or hamlet. The appeal is referred to the

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[31] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 68.

[32] Stats. of Sask., 1955, c. 47, s. 7.

[33] The tax rate for town districts included in units by agreement is fixed by the agreement.

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Saskatchewan Assessment Commission, which attempts to negotiate a settlement, makes a final decision, and notifies the appropriate taxing authority of its decision.

Local school districts within units may requisition funds for expenditure in their districts in addition to the expenditures to be made by the unit for their districts.[34] In such cases, the district board informs the unit board of the estimated expenditure, which the unit board may increase or decrease.[35] When the requisition is approved by the unit board, it is forwarded to the appropriate taxing authority, which imposes a tax levy on the total assessable property in the local school district, collects the taxes, and forwards the proceeds to the unit office at least monthly.

The municipal council as a tax collection agency may therefore be responsible for the collection of two taxes imposed by the authority of the school unit board. It is responsible for collecting the uniform tax as fixed by the unit board; and, in the case of the local school district tax, it is responsible for levying a tax to raise the funds required for the supplementary program of a district or a part of a district within the municipality. With respect to lands outside a municipality but within a school unit, the Minister of Municipal Affairs or the unit board levies and collects the school taxes.

In the event that a rural municipal council or a village council collects monies for a unit board and does not pay them within a specified time to the unit board, the monies are a debt due by the collection authority and may be recovered in a legal action by the unit board.[36] Thus, any funds held by a municipality for a school district which becomes part of a unit or any collection of tax arrears by municipalities (or the Department of Municipal Affairs for local improvement districts) must be paid to the school unit office. If a municipal council fails to levy and collect the uniform tax or any special tax decided upon by the unit board, the municipal council is nevertheless liable for the amounts due.[37]

Borrowing Powers of Larger Units

School boards traditionally have had power to borrow for both current and capital expenditures. Under the individual district system, school boards were able to borrow for current expenditures on promissory notes secured by uncollected taxes. In borrowing for capital expenditures, the school board was required to pass a resolution indicating its intention to borrow for capital expenditures, to obtain approval of the Local Government Board, and to submit a by-law authorizing the indebtedness to a vote of the ratepayers.

Under the larger unit system, the larger unit board is also authorized to borrow for current expenditures on the security of uncollected taxes. The unit board may also borrow on behalf of an individual district on the security of the local district tax.[38] In addition, the unit boards may borrow for current and some capital expenditures on the security of government grants.

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[34] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 48.

[35] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 73(1).

[36] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 76.

[37] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 70(2).

Larger unit boards may use current revenues from taxes and grants for capital expenditures. For units that are not permanently established the Department of Education provides a fund for capital borrowing. School units borrowing from this fund have been encouraged to keep loans to a ten-year repayment period. After a unit has become permanently established, it then borrows for capital expenditures through regular channels. Experience has shown that units borrowing through regular channels tend to limit their loans to a ten-year period as well. Regulations limit the amount which a unit may borrow for capital works to "an amount equal to five per cent of the assessed value of the assessable property in the unit."[39] When the unit desires to borrow money, it must pass a resolution showing in detail the amount to be borrowed, the purposes for which it is to be used, the term of the debenture to be issued, the rate of interest payable, and the method of repayment. The loan must then be authorized by the Local Government Board. When approval is received, passage of a by-law is required; except that, if the amount to be borrowed in any year is less than 1½ per cent of the current taxable assessment of the unit, no by-law need be submitted unless stipulated by the Local Government Board.[40]

Equalization Grants in Larger Units[41]

The formation of larger units provided a greater degree of equalization among school districts contained in a unit than had existed before the formation of the unit. But great disparity among units still existed. Equalization grants from the Provincial Government were therefore required to minimize these differences. All schools, regardless of type of administration, receive comparable basic grants from the Provincial Government, but the equalization grants vary with type of school administration.

Non-unit school districts receive equalization grants based on the difference between the actual assessment and a specified assessment. Thus, rural and village school districts receive grants equal to 14 mills on the difference between the actual per room assessment and $130,000 per room. Special grants are made available to those districts in which the assessment is below $60,000 per room. Town and city school districts with fewer than 50 rooms in operation receive grants equal to 14 mills on the difference between the actual per room assessment and $125,000 per room. Under this plan, the maximum equalization grant per day of operation is $4.90 per room for rural and village districts and $3.50 per room for town and city districts.

When a school district is included in a unit, the individual district equalization grant no longer applies. Equalization grants are paid to the larger unit on a basis that introduces a cost factor depending on whether the room is in an elementary or high school and making allowance for non-operating districts. Equalization grants paid to larger units are determined by considering certain aspects of unit revenues relative to certain basic minimum costs. Revenues considered are the amounts represented by:

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[38] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 82.

[39] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 89.

[40] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, s. 88.

[41] See Chapter VI for a full discussion of school grants.

1) A 15 mill levy on rural and 19.5 mill levy on urban parts of the unit, plus

2) The grants earned under certain sections of the School Act, namely, $3.00 per day for each open district, an additional $1.00 per day for continuation and high school rooms, and $3.00 per day for each closed district that has other arrangements for the education of its children. Basic program costs used in the determination of the grants are:

1) $3,240 per continuation and high school room in operation,

2) $3,040 per other room in operation, plus

3) $1,650 for each conveying district.

The equalization grant allowable is the amount by which the cost of the program exceeds the basic revenues thus computed.

Equalization grants for larger units have always been calculated in the same manner, although there have been alterations in the cost allowances and in the basic mill rates. The original legislation used mill rates of 9 and 14 and minimum per room costs of $1,800 and $1,500 in the formula. The minimum annual grant to a unit was set at $5,000 in 1947[42] and raised to $10,000 in 1950.[43]

Equalization grants have become a major part of the provincial contribution to the units. Table 32 shows the relationship of equalization grants to total grants in the larger units in selected years. In 1953 - 54, total grants to units amounted to more than $7 million, of which equalization grants were about $3 million.

TABLE 32. RELATIONSHIP OF EQUALIZATION GRANTS TO TOTAL GRANTS IN LARGER SCHOOL UNITS IN SASKATCHEWAN, 1945-1954

Item	1945	1947	1948	1951	1952	1953	1954
				Dollars			
Equalization grant	44,000	517,030	1,449,508	2,664,448	2,352,664	2,944,719	2,999,116
Total unit grant	—*	—*	3,540,272	5,317,840	5,179,165	6,439,213	7,054,780

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.
* School grants not classified as unit and non-unit.

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[42] Stats. of Sask., 1947, c. 60, s. 14.
[43] Stats. of Sask., 1950, c. 58, s. 5.

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ADMINISTRATION OF LARGER UNITS

Before the establishment of the larger unit, educational policy was determined by the individual school district and its elected board. Local educational problems were debated by the neighbourhood group, and policies were defined, within the limits of the School Act, that met with the approval of local taxpayers. The school board was elected from the resident ratepayers, and a maximum of local control was possible because of the small community in which the school district worked. In the localism of the small school district also lay its weaknesses—its inability to integrate its activities with those of urban centers where secondary education was provided and its inability to provide uniform educational opportunity and administration over a wide area.

The school board was relatively independent of other local government administrations. It was entirely independent of neighbouring school boards and was dependent on the rural municipality only for collection of school taxes. The Department of Education set certain standards for education and provided considerable support for rural schools. Because of the large number of school districts, however, close supervision and provincial aid were difficult to maintain. The school inspector, a department appointee, was primarily an inspector of teaching standards and secondarily a liaison officer between the Department of Education and the local administration.

In the larger school unit covering a much larger territory than the small district, control of educational policy by ratepayers is of necessity less direct. Each larger unit is administered by a board of trustees elected by delegates from the districts in sub-units. The very establishment of larger school units recognizes the interdependence of local school districts. The increasing interdependence of rural and urban districts requires effective administrative relationships between rural and urban education.

Through its superintendent, who is appointed by the Department of Education, the larger unit can maintain close and effective liaison with the Department of Education. Although the main duty of the rural municipal council with respect to education continues to be that of tax collection for the larger unit, the centralization of school facilities is creating pressures on the municipalities to aid in student transportation programs and to build durable rural roads.

As shown above, units vary considerably in number of districts, number of operating districts, number of students, and amount of conveyance. They also differ in administrative organization because of personalities involved. In spite of these variables, certain basic relationships must be maintained within units and with other agencies, both local and provincial. The maintenance of these relationships should in no way detract from the participation of the ratepayer in the life of the school, although participation may not be so direct for all ratepayers as in the small school district. Channels can be devised, however, for ratepayers to have a voice in choosing the unit board, in developing the program, and in making policy.

Certain functions in rural education are charged to municipal councils and school boards—local agencies of small size. The Department of Education through its superintendent exercises considerable influence. Between these two levels of administration the unit board operates, endeavouring to satisfy the demand for modern education while maintaining a uniform tax levy acceptable to municipal authorities, local school boards, and ratepayers. The administrative relationships of the larger units with district boards, with the superintendent of the unit, and with other local agencies are here reviewed. The effect of these complex relationships on the administration and support of the larger units is also explored.

Relationship Between Larger Unit and District Boards

Before the establishment of the larger units as the system of organization for rural education in Saskatchewan, the retention of local district boards was thoroughly discussed. Some draft proposals for larger units abolished local boards, and some retained them. When the Act was passed, local boards were retained as an integral part of the system. Consequently, duties and powers both for local boards and unit boards were outlined in the Larger School Units Act.[11]

The individual school districts are charged with the following responsibilities: caring for and managing the district property, providing at unit expense the requirements of day-to-day operation (water, fuel, and so forth), providing for local discussion of educational matters (including nomination of a teacher) for presentation to the unit board, and electing a delegate or delegates to the sub-unit level. The district board also has the privilege of requesting the provision at its own expense of equipment not normally provided by the unit board.

The unit boards are charged with all responsibilities normally charged to any school board under the School Act. These responsibilities include: the administration and supervision of all schools in the unit, the consideration of educational needs and the provision of adequate facilities and equipment, the provision of facilities or means for attendance of all students within the unit, the appointment of duly qualified teachers, and the provision of means for unit board and district communication. In addition to these general administrative duties, the unit boards may at their option accept responsibility for providing health services, special instruction, assistance for delegates to attend provincial conventions, and honorariums for local secretaries.

Thus, the duties and powers of the district boards pertain largely to stewardship of local property, while the unit boards are responsible for general educational policy and provision of facilities. Within this legal framework, wide variations in relationships undoubtedly exist. For example, an operating rural district near the unit office or sub-unit trustee will undoubtedly have a different relationship with the unit board from that of a district which has been closed for some years and is located at the extremes of the unit or sub-unit. Relationships may also vary with differences in qualifications or utilization of personnel. Some unit boards may delegate more administrative responsibility to the unit secretary than others; some unit boards may not provide adequate leadership or liaison with boards and ratepayers with the result that the superintendent or secretary is obliged to assume these responsibilities.

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[11] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 170, ss. 47-56. See Appendix VII for a full list of the duties and powers of district boards and unit boards.

Attitude of District Boards to the Larger Unit

In the early years of the establishment of school units, many individual school boards felt that there was little use for their existence and earnestly discussed the abolition of district boards. The Minister of Education, however, opposed abolition of the school boards, contending that the district boards could make a contribution equally as great as or greater than ever before.[45] The election of unit boards by delegates elected by the district boards was calculated to provide the closest possible linkage between local educational needs and the unit board. Discussion and action at the local level channelled to the sub-unit level and finally to the unit board were considered the most desirable methods of involving more people in educational problems and thus involving the district board in the development of policy.

The Commission gained the impression from various sources that considerable antipathy exists on the part of local school boards towards the larger unit board. Information received in 1953 from superintendents and secretaries of the larger units indicated that a considerable proportion of local districts were not actively participating in local school administration.[46] Table 33 shows the percentage of district boards then considered active by unit boards and superintendents. Except for the units which had a very low (0-20 per cent) measure of local board support, the superintendents and secretaries varied considerably in their opinions of the adequacy of district board support. For example, in one unit one official may consider 20 per cent of the boards active, while another official in the same unit feels that 80 per cent are active. Thus, although nine boards and nine secretaries considered 61-80 per cent of district boards active, these 18 officials were not necessarily in the same units and were not necessarily referring to the same district boards. Despite this variance in opinion among unit officials, a considerable number of local district boards were not considered sufficiently active.

The Commission undertook to ascertain through questionnaires to individual school boards and larger units the specific reasons for the lack of activity by school boards within larger units.[47] Responses by individual boards to the questionnaire indicated that changes in personnel in district boards may partly explain why some of the boards are considered not sufficiently active. The majority of district board trustees in a small sample of district boards have been elected since the larger unit came into

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[45] *The School Trustee*, The Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association, Vol. 17, No. 8, April, 1947, p. 6.

[46] There may have been some change in the working relationships between unit and district boards after 1953, although there has been no change in the formal administrative relationship.

[47] Appendix VI. Questionnaire submitted to individual school district boards.

TABLE 33. RELATIVE ACTIVITY OF LOCAL SCHOOL BOARDS IN SASKATCHEWAN, 1953

Percentage of School Boards Considered Active in Each Unit	Unit Board Opinion	Superintendent Opinion
	Per cent of school units	
Less than 20 per cent	6	4
20 per cent-40 per cent	8	10
41 per cent-60 per cent	19	21
61 per cent-80 per cent	17	17
81 per cent-100 per cent	42	48
No response	8	—
Total	100	100

SOURCE: Questionnaires returned by superintendents and boards of larger school units to the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.

operation.[48] These new members, although not necessarily opposed to larger units because of the district board's loss of authority, may not be active by reason of their limited experience in school administration or lack of leadership on the part of the larger unit board.

Of the individual district boards that responded to the Commission's questionnaire, a majority were opposed to larger units. The main reasons for opposition were increased taxes[49] and lack of local control. Much of the criticism leveled at larger units arises from the mistaken idea that larger units and centralization are synonymous.

In addition, some district boards were dissatisfied with the method of election of unit boards. In a limited sample of district boards (80), 29 per cent thought that the present system of election was "very good," 48 per cent that it was "fairly good," and 23 per cent that it was "poor." Those in opposition to the present system favoured election of sub-unit trustees by the ratepayers rather than by the sub-unit delegates.

The Commission also asked unit boards and unit superintendents their explanations for the lack of interest by local boards.[50] The following five reasons for inactivity of district boards were ranked in the order below by unit boards and unit superintendents:

1) District boards feel that the unit board is paid for administering school affairs and should be left to do the whole job.

2) District boards have no responsibility for expenditure of unit funds.

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[48] Responses to a questionnaire to district boards included in units formed before 1949 indicated that 151 of 218 trustees were elected to office after the formation of the unit.

[49] Other studies by this Commission indicate that, on the whole, this allegation is without foundation. See Rural Roads and Local Government, pp. 138-9.

[50] Appendix VI. Questionnaire submitted to larger unit boards and superintendents.

3) The ratepayers to whom district boards are responsible are not co-operative at the local level because of the control by the unit board.

4) District boards prefer to remain aloof and be in a position to criticize.

5) District boards are not encouraged by the unit board to undertake expenditures for fear that these expenditures may upset the financial planning of the unit board.

There are indications that other circumstances as well may create misunderstanding. A local board is responsible for the custody of local school property and is expected to advise the unit board on the need for repairs, additions, and other matters. When such advice is offered, the unit board may fail to act because of greater need elsewhere or because of uncertainty as to the future use of the district school. The unit board may, in terms of the welfare of the total unit, be justified in failing to act. Nevertheless, unless the local board is adequately informed and in agreement, hostility and antagonism are probable results.

That some local boards have lost interest in the management of school affairs is not surprising when it is considered that they have been transformed from local government bodies into committees in charge of local facilities. At the same time there is need for an active board at each operating school. The degree of activity is largely determined by the general attitude of the ratepayers and the working relationship with the larger unit board.

Liaison Between Larger Unit and District Boards

Without effective liaison and the two-way communication and understanding that go with it, both the administrative efficiency and the democratic functioning of the unit will suffer. It is understandable that, in the early years of unit establishment, the district board may need clarification of its role in relationship to that of the larger unit. Not only has a new administrative organization been introduced, but at the same time extensive regrouping has occurred; these forces have required a redefinition of the role of the district board. Working out this redefined function requires continuous two-way communication between unit boards and ratepayers. Active district boards are an essential link in the larger unit administrative chain; it is therefore imperative that effective liaison be maintained.

Table 34 indicates that most larger unit officials feel that the larger units are making at least a fairly great effort to maintain or develop the interest and activity of local boards.

Limitations on the unit's maintaining effective liaison with district boards are lack of time, the qualifications of some trustees, and the attitude of some district boards to the unit system. Unit board members are occupied full time in their own pursuits and do not have enough time to undertake an effective public relations program. The amount and quality of liaison maintained depends on the sub-unit trustee. Some trustees are well-qualified for this work; others are not. Finally, if a district board has been opposed to the larger school unit, the unit board may prefer to avoid conflict rather than try to build a relationship with a hostile group.

TABLE 34. EFFORTS OF SCHOOL UNIT BOARDS TO DEVELOP AND MAINTAIN THE INTEREST OF LOCAL BOARDS AND RATEPAYERS

Degree of Effort	Superintendent Opinion	Unit Board Opinion
	Per cent of school units	
Very great effort	11	23
Fairly great effort	42	48
Some effort	45	27
No effort	—	—
No response	2	2
Total	100	100

SOURCE: Questionnaires returned by superintendents and boards of larger school units to the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.

Where insufficient liaison is maintained, the unit secretary or superintendent may intervene. District boards and ratepayers, particularly if opposed to a policy or program, take exception to appointed officials' assuming the responsibilities of elected representatives.

Relationship Between Ratepayers and the Larger Unit

Rural people in the majority are satisfied that larger units of administration are advantageous to education. There appear to be a substantial number, however, who are critical of the administration of larger units and critical of the lack of opportunities for ratepayer control.

Under the present administrative structure, the local ratepayer is expected to act through his local district board. If the local board is not particularly active, or if it is unsympathetic to larger unit administration, the avenue of communication between ratepayer and unit is blocked. Moreover, the ratepayer in a district in which the board has ceased to function entirely has no representation at the sub-unit level, either in the selection of unit board members or in program planning. It is true that ratepayers in these circumstances may, if nominated, be elected to the unit board. They also have some recourse to unit administration through the sub-unit trustee or the sub-unit annual meeting. These opportunities, however, do not appear to be fully adequate. In either case cited, the retention of the local board contributes little to unit administration. Even if the local board is operating, the individual ratepayer has no control over the unit board or its program except through the sub-unit meeting; he cannot exercise voting control over unit board trustees except through a delegate.

To provide ratepayers with more effective democratic control, it would seem reasonable to have unit trustees elected by the ratepayers at large in each sub-unit. The trustee would maintain the same relationship to operating boards as now exists and, through the media of local and sub-unit meetings, would be directly responsible to the ratepayers. This measure, together with the establishment of central boards in all larger attendance areas, should provide reasonable opportunity for ratepayer participation in local school affairs and in the larger units.

Beyond these measures, some ratepayers have suggested that organization of more Home and School Associations would improve ratepayer relations with the school and with school administration. While traditionally these associations have not been primarily concerned with school administration, it has been felt by some that they could further enhance their usefulness by keeping in touch with administrative matters and channelling their thinking on school policy to the appropriate authorities.

In summary, it is evident that the relationship between the unit board and ratepayers is conditioned largely by the effectiveness of the individual district board as a link in the administrative chain and by the communication and liaison efforts of the unit board. Indications are that there are cases in which either or both are ineffective, with the result that misunderstanding and antagonism have developed towards larger units. The election at large of unit trustees by the ratepayers in each sub-unit would make the unit board directly responsible to the ratepayers, regardless of the position or status of the local board, and should result in more democratic ratepayer participation.

Relationship Between Larger Unit and Superintendent

Under the individual district system, the representative of the Department of Education was known as an inspector, whose duties were to inspect teaching standards and school equipment and to see that the school was operated in accordance with regulations. Because of the large number of small school districts it was virtually impossible for the inspector to become involved in local administration, and thus the Department of Education could provide only limited leadership for local administration.

In 1940, an amendment to the School Act changed the title of the inspector to superintendent.[51] Although the amendment did not specify any change in function, the change in name was interpreted to mean a change from the concept of individual school inspection to that of educational leadership. The Teachers' Federation commented editorially on the change as follows:

> In the broader field, the superintendent became released from some of the more binding traditions of the inspector. The fact that the superintendent approaches the problem of education from the standpoint of one who must encourage the growth and development of a better quality of teacher drives him almost inevitably into the business of encouraging his constituent ratepayers in constantly accepting higher standards of educational qualifications. He thus becomes a definite leader in the field in which he works.[52]

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[51] Stats. of Sask., 1940, c. 76, s. 2(1, 10).

[52] *The Bulletin,* Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, Vol. VI, No. 2, 1940, p. 1.

The introduction of the larger units in no way decreased the responsibilities of the Department of Education with respect to control of educational standards, teacher training, and teaching standards. But the decreased number of administrative boards with which the Department had to maintain liaison after the establishment of the larger units facilitated more uniform administration in accord with Department policies.

The Larger School Units Act of 1944 stipulated that when a larger unit is established the Minister shall appoint a superintendent and outline his duties.[53] The Act conferred considerable authority upon the superintendent. He was empowered to exercise general supervision over the teachers, the work of the secretary-treasurer, and the unit office. The Act further stated that it was the duty of the superintendent to confer with and advise the unit board on educational matters and to attend all meetings. In 1953, the Act was amended to revoke the superintendent's duty to supervise the unit office and to provide instead that the superintendent shall confer with the unit board on the work of the unit office.[54]

Beyond these stipulations, the actual role of the superintendent in the modern school unit is difficult to define. The position of the superintendent in unit deliberations and decisions varies from one unit to another with the age of the unit, the strength of the unit board, the activity of district boards, and the personality of the superintendent. The administration of education is flexible not only in Saskatchewan but throughout Canada, and educators are attempting to define administrative functions in the light of recent trends in education.[55]

The superintendent in Saskatchewan is basically an advisory and supervisory official in the unit and is an official rural representative of the Department of Education. As the educational leader in the unit, he is responsible for the general supervision of all schools and teachers in the area and for the promotion of education.

Of a list of duties which may be performed by a school superintendent, the following appear to be most pertinent to his role in administration:

1) To act as a representative of the Department of Education in administrative and supervisory matters;

2) To make an annual report to the Department of Education concerning the condition of education in the area including buildings, equipment, teacher qualifications, and salaries;

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[53] Stats. of Sask., 1944 (2d Sess.), c. 41, s. 77.

[54] Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 66, s. 11.

[55] See *Some Problems of the Superintendency in Canada,* Report of Pilot Short Course, Canadian Education Association, Kellogg Project in Educational Leadership, Toronto, 1953, for a description of a joint project by the Canada Education Association and the Kellogg Foundation on the problems of superintendency. Some of the aims of this study are: (1) to clarify the functions of superintendents or inspectors of larger school areas; (2) to bring together a fund of knowledge and material based on Canadian experience in administration and supervision; (3) to stimulate the intercommunication of educational ideas and practices between widely separated areas in Canada; (4) to develop principles and procedure designed to improve Canadian school administration in general. This study promises to make a significant contribution in defining the administrative role of the superintendent.

3) To act in an advisory capacity in the administrative functions of the unit office in the larger units;

4) To act as a professional adviser to the school board in the development of educational policy;

5) To assume responsibility for keeping the community informed of the purposes, problems, and needs of the school system;

6) To conduct research into educational needs of the schools so that the board may base policies on factual information.

While the superintendent's role with respect to unit administration is to act in an advisory capacity, it should be noted that when the units were initially established, the superintendent was closely involved with administrative detail. Superintendents have usually been appointed as unit secretaries until unit boards were functioning. This procedure made it possible for the Department of Education to provide leadership in administration. During this formative period of normally three or four months, the superintendent was not actively engaged in supervision. In the opinion of the chief superintendent,[56] the superintendent in all cases returned to his main function of supervision when the unit was in operation.

The majority of superintendents, however, are intimately involved in unit administration, some more so than others. Because of his familiarity with educational requirements in the unit, the superintendent is in an ideal position to advise the unit board. Concern exists among some ratepayers that a few superintendents dominate unit planning and administration. Where this situation exists and is permitted to continue a decline in local interest and initiative and an increasing antipathy to the administration of larger units may well follow. School unit secretaries responding to a Commission questionnaire indicated that unit boards do not believe that there is any tendency towards domination of unit policy by the superintendent. With one exception, the relationship between the unit board and the superintendent was described as excellent. Critics of the relationship between unit boards and superintendents point out, however, that although the board and superintendent may operate harmoniously, decisions on education do not necessarily reflect the wishes of the ratepayers. These critics query whether the professional training and experience of a superintendent qualify him to advise on the management of aspects of unit business other than strictly educational aspects. If decisions on education do not reflect the wishes of ratepayers, the long-run consequences will be detrimental to effective local administration unless methods are devised to keep ratepayers fully informed of policies developed by the larger unit.

In summary, it should be reemphasized that the modern school superintendent is no longer only a classroom specialist but is a representative of the Department of Education in the administrative and supervisory area. Understanding and acceptance of this role in relation to the powers of unit boards is essential for harmony in administration of rural education.

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[56] L. F. Titus, Chief Superintendent, Department of Education.

Relationship Between the Larger Unit and Other Local Agencies

The larger school unit is an acknowledgment of the interdependence of rural areas within a large community and of the interdependence of rural and urban areas. Its effectiveness as an administrative unit depends in part on the adequacy of its relationships with other local agencies serving rural citizens. School problems are related to municipal problems. Local agricultural and health services find expression to some extent in the schools. And all local services must be financed out of the same purse.

The Larger Unit and Municipal Councils

The boundaries of larger units and rural municipalities show great overlapping. There are approximately 300 rural municipalities and 60 school superintendencies, 56 of which are larger units of administration. A school unit is approximately five times as large as a municipality. Since the larger units were established without reference to municipal boundaries, larger units include on the average all or parts of ten municipalities.

Historically, the main function of rural municipal councils with respect to education has been the collection of school taxes. The School Act has specified a few additional duties for municipalities so that the duties and powers of municipalities with respect to education are:

1) To approve the boundaries of public school districts. Council approval of boundaries of consolidated districts is required when the district is less than 36 square miles in size. The boundaries for a consolidated district of more than 36 square miles must be approved by the Minister of Education. The rural municipal councils have no authority over larger unit boundaries. Since very few new public school or consolidated districts are being organized, the role of rural municipalities in this phase of educational administration is limited.

2) To act as an intermediary in discussions of alteration of district boundaries. The council may withhold alteration of school district boundaries until all parties are satisfied that the alteration is in their best interests.

3) The rural municipal council must approve a proposed site for a school or approve an alternate site if the site is not at the center of the district.

4) Rural municipal councils are required to levy and collect taxes at the request of local education authorities, whether the educational authority is a unit or a single district not included in a unit. The council has no authority or control over the tax levy set by the educational authority but may, in special circumstances, appeal the tax rate.[57]

5) Rural municipal councils have no control over the capital expenditures of unit boards. Controls that exist are vested in the ratepayers and the Local Government Board.

6) The rural municipal council may make contributions for educational purposes as follows:

a) Provide a grant not in excess of $1,000 per year for maintenance of a high school or institute giving high school work within the rural municipality;

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[57] See section on taxing authority of larger units p. 111.

b) Provide a grant to a school district which will entitle students from the rural municipality to tuition-free enrolment in high school classes;

c) Provide high school fees to students from the rural municipality to attend high school in a district where high school is taught;

d) Provide a grant not over $600 per year for assistance to Grade VIII graduates to attend the School of Agriculture.

Municipalities have long deplored the autonomy of school authorities on school taxes and requested some control of requisitions and levies for education. In 1954, the Saskatchewan Association of Rural Municipalities passed a resolution at its convention requesting legislation that would place a ceiling on taxes for education.[58] Municipal authorities have also suggested some control of capital expenditures by the Local Government Board.[59]

School boards, through the Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association, have been striving towards co-ordination with municipalities on matters of concern to both authorities. In 1937, before the establishment of larger units and during the depression years, some control of school expenditures was considered. Representatives of rural and urban municipalities and the Trustees' Association met and agreed to a resolution that school boards submit estimates of expenditures to the council and that if the two cannot agree on the requisition the Local Government Board be authorized to make a final decision. This policy was not adopted, and current expenditures for education are neither submitted to municipal councils nor approved by the Local Government Board. At the same time there are limits to school capital expenditure from current levies and on capital borrowings.

Not only finances but roads are of concern to both municipal and school authorities. The trend towards centralization of school facilities and the increased conveying of students have heightened the importance of the quality of rural roads. In December, 1953, 434 school bus routes covered more than 7,000 miles of road. A total of 8,713 students were transported twice daily on these routes. Since 524 study supervisors were still in service in 1953, more schools might have been closed had it been possible to convey the students. An estimate from the school units indicates that a further 500 schools may be closed in the next five years.

Many municipalities and school units have experienced considerable difficulty in providing adequate bus routes. Of 70 rural municipalities which returned questionnaires, 39 stated that they had had virtually no difficulty in providing bus routes and 31 stated that the responsibility was causing difficulty.[60] Of the 31 municipalities which encountered difficulties, 9 indicated the responsibility was causing very great difficulty, 7 said they experienced fairly great difficulty, and 15 stated that they experienced some difficulty. The municipalities that encountered difficulties were those which were attempting planned programs of market road development over a period of several years.

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[58] *Resolutions and Program*, Saskatchewan Association of Rural Municipalities Convention, 1954, Resolution No. 26.

[59] *Ibid.*, Resolution No. 54.

[60] Questionnaire returned by 70 rural municipalities to the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953. See Appendix II, Report 4, Rural Roads and Local Government.

Joint planning by school units and municipal councils has been considered to alleviate these difficulties in providing bus routes. School unit officials in particular have tried to achieve increased co-operation with municipal officials on the provision of adequate roads as centralization of school facilities has progressed. Resolutions at conventions of the Trustees' Association have proposed amendments to the School Act and the Rural Municipality Act requiring joint meetings of school boards and municipal councils. At its 1954 convention, the Trustees' Association discussed increased co-operation between rural municipalities and school boards and requested more attention on the part of municipal officials to the improvement of roads for school bus routes.

The Commission, through rural community forums, briefs, and hearings, gained the impression that co-ordination of municipal and school activities with respect to bus routes was limited. Responses to questionnaires by school units confirmed the impression that school units have been more aggressive than municipal councils in promoting co-ordinated planning of school bus routes. The following replies were given by school unit secretaries to questions posed by the Commission.

To what extent has the Unit Board made a strong attempt to create a good working relationship with the rural municipal council regarding:[61]

(a) Explanation of bus route requirements?

	Per Cent of Units
Very great extent	13
Fairly great extent	29
Somewhat	35
Not at all	15
No response	8
Total	100

To what extent has the rural municipal council made a strong attempt to co-operate with the school board regarding:
(a) Planning bus routes?

	Per Cent of Units
Very great extent	2
Fairly great extent	10
Somewhat	48
Not at all	34
No response	6
Total	100

(b) Providing bus routes?

	Per Cent of Units
Very great extent	2
Fairly great extent	10
Somewhat	50
Not at all	30
No response	8
Total	100

At the time of this survey 21 units had three or fewer larger attendance areas, but it is assumed that the opinions of the unit officials referred only to those municipalities which were involved in the operation or planning of conveyance systems.

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[61] Questionnaire returned by boards of. larger school units to Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.

Thus, 42 per cent of the unit boards believe that they have made a relatively strong attempt to work with the councils on bus routes, while only 12 per cent of the unit boards feel that they have had comparable support from the councils on the planning of bus routes. Thirty-four per cent of the units feel that the councils have given no support at all in planning bus routes, while 15 per cent of the units admit that no effort was made to communicate conveyance plans to the council. Fifty per cent of the units believe that municipalities have attempted to a limited extent to provide adequate bus routes, while 30 per cent of the units feel that the councils have made no attempt to co-operate in the provision of adequate bus routes.

Despite the fact that 46 per cent of the unit boards had municipal councillors as members of the unit board, co-ordination between educational and municipal administrations was limited. The increase in centralization of schools and the establishment of conveyance systems has made co-operation in the planning of rural roads essential. Municipal officials are also concerned that increasing school taxes will hamper public works and other municipal programs. Increased liaison between school and municipal authorities would promote understanding between the two agencies and efficient use of available public funds.

The Larger Unit and Other Local Agencies

Many local agencies are providing services to rural people. Improved standards of education and expansion in the curriculum have brought education into contact with two of these services—health and agriculture, but there is no jurisdictional or administrative relationship between the larger units and these local agencies.

As part of its program of preventive services, the health regions conduct a school health program. Three health regions also supply the services of a school psychologist to the schools in their regions. But there are no formal avenues for communication between school units and health regions on common problems.

The recent addition of agricultural education, organized in an out-of-school program, involves school units in a program allied with local agricultural services. Here again only informal administrative relationships exist between the agencies involved. The agricultural instructor, supervising on-the-farm study projects, is directed by the unit of which he is an employee and by the appropriate division of the Department of Education. His area may be in one or more agricultural representative districts. The agricultural representative, providing a similar service, operates in a much larger area that includes portions of two or more larger units. To date, conflicts do not hamper the administration of the programs. But future developments in either or both services will require clarification of administrative and jurisdictional relationships.

Implications of Relationships Between the Larger Unit and Other Services

Larger school units have been organized in a period in which government service costs, in general, have been increasing. School units have been faced with the necessity of improving facilities that deteriorated during the depression and World War II. At the same time, the units have had to accept the initial costs associated with the regrouping of school facilities. Added to these costs have been increased salaries for teachers, all of which have meant increased levies for education. Since the municipal councils as collection agencies have a limited right to appeal levies for education, they are placed in the position of having to take responsibility for increases in the costs of education without responsibility for administration. Municipalities object to the fact that school units are authorized to finance capital expenditures from current levies while municipalities are not. This procedure was adopted for school units because they are established initially on a temporary basis and because of the difficulties in securing public sanction to incur expense at a localized point in a large unit.

Fiscal relationships thus create some misunderstanding between municipal councils and larger units. Other related problems stem from the provision of student transportation. Each unit contains all or part of a number of municipalities. The decision to establish a conveyance route may involve liaison with several municipalities, any one of which may be unable to participate in a road improvement program. The result is disruption of the plans of the unit, the municipalities, and the families affected by the planning. Co-ordinated planning and improved liaison between the larger unit and all local service agencies are essential for the welfare of education, the road planning agency, other agencies, and the rural ratepayer in whose interests all local agencies are acting.

POSSIBLE APPROACHES TO INTEGRATING LARGER SCHOOL UNITS AND OTHER LOCAL AGENCIES

In the preceding sections all the important aspects of larger school units have been reviewed—the development of larger school units, their operation, financing, administration, and relationship with other local agencies. In order to achieve integration of the activities of larger school units with the work of other local agencies, particularly with that of municipal units, two proposals have been suggested: (1) the establishment of coterminous boundaries for school and municipal units, which for maximum effectiveness will require some revision of present boundaries of school units, and (2) the institution of a county system of government.[62] Under the first proposal, informal co-operation between coterminous school and municipal units could be achieved. Under the second proposal, boundaries of school and municipal units would be coterminous and in addition administration of the two services would be integrated in whole or in part through the county council.

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[62] For a full discussion of the county system of government, see the Commission's report on Rural Roads and Local Government.

Coterminous Boundaries

The description of the establishment of larger units has revealed deficiencies in the delineation of unit boundaries. These deficiencies are related to the method of mapping school units so that their outer boundaries conformed with school district boundaries, the subsequent change in the total number of units, and changes in the rural environment since the establishment of the units. Many education officials believe that present boundaries are not entirely functional. In addition, great variations exist among units in number of school districts and students included. The administration of education would undoubtedly profit from a reorganization of larger school unit boundaries in greater conformity with the needs of centralization and community patterns of association.[63]

The proposal to make boundaries for school and municipal units coterminous while continuing their separate administrations is not new. During the years when the establishment of larger units was under debate, education officials generally indicated their support of coterminous units provided separate administrations were retained.

Today, superintendents, secretaries, and boards of larger school units also generally favour coterminous boundaries. Table 35 presents the responses given by superintendents, secretaries, and unit boards to a Commission questionnaire asking to what extent they would favour enlarging municipalities and making them coterminous with school units. The questionnaire did not imply any need for reorganization of present school units. The vast majority of the three groups questioned favoured the enlargement of rural municipalities to achieve boundaries coterminous with school units, but some variation existed in the extent to which each group favoured the proposal.

TABLE 35. DEGREE OF SUPPORT FOR COTERMINOUS SCHOOL AND MUNICIPAL UNITS

Degree of Support for Coterminous Units	Number of Unit Boards	Number of Secretaries	Number of Superintendents
To a very great extent	11	14	24
To a great extent	18	14	19
Somewhat	16	12	8
Not at all	5	6	2
No response	2	6	—

SOURCE: Questionnaires returned by superintendents and boards of larger school units to the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1955.

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[63] For a discussion of community patterns of association, see the Commission's report on Service Centers.

The majority of education officials who presented submissions to the Commission indicated that the lack of coterminous boundaries is not of such concern from the educational point of view. Generally, it was felt that there might be uneconomical use of time and personnel by many overlapping agencies and that a lack of comprehensive local planning might hinder effective use of tax resources. Those education officials who are hesitant about coterminous boundaries are motivated by fear of financial loss to education from having municipal and school authorities compete for the tax dollar within a single area. But the vast majority of education officials believe that adjustments in boundaries are necessary to achieve co-ordination of the authorities responsible for road building and centralization of school facilities.

Unit officials questioned by the Commission listed a number of criteria that they felt should govern the creation of coterminous units for school and municipal services. These criteria are listed in the order of importance attached to them by the education officials questioned.

1) Boundaries of coterminous units should conform to the areas within which rural people associate for trade and other services with consideration of the service centers used by rural people. The boundaries of the coterminous unit should conform with the outer boundaries of the larger attendance areas for both elementary and high school students.

2) Coterminous units should take into account the adequacy of communication in the proposed area. With increased centralization of school facilities in urban centers, adequate roads to surrounding rural areas are essential.

3) The area of coterminous units should be large enough to provide adequate finances for satisfactory school and municipal services.

4) Boundaries of coterminous units should have regard for topographical and physical features of the area.

5) Coterminous units should be defined so that the administrative center is accessible to all segments of the unit.

6) The definition of coterminous units should have regard for present and potential population. In the ten years since larger units were first established, population has not declined uniformly in all areas.

7) In so far as possible, coterminous units should have equal assessments.

8) Coterminous units should be small enough to permit the participation of ratepayers in local affairs. Undoubtedly, the line of demarcation between a unit that is too small for economic purposes and a unit that is too large for ratepayer response is hard to define. The key to the proper size lies in the school and municipal programs envisaged.

Implicit in these criteria is the conviction on the part of education officials that larger school units as organized at present fall short of being thoroughly functional and that education would benefit from a more rational organization of administrative units. Thus, education officials today favour enlarging municipal units to be coterminous with school units and revising the structure of the present larger school units for the creation of coterminous units.

County System of Local Government

A county system of rural local government would provide not only coterminous boundaries for school and municipal units but also unified administration of school and municipal services. In the modified county, separate school and municipal administrations would operate with some devices for co-ordination of program and activities. In the full county, a single county council with an education and a municipal committee would handle policy for both education and municipal services.

The Commission discussed the proposal of a county system of government with rural people at community hearings, but most ratepayers were not sufficiently conversant with the possibilities of the system to make judgments.

The Commission also questioned larger school unit officials on their attitude towards a county form of government. The 103 unit officials who replied were generally opposed to the county. They expressed concern that citizens elected to the county council would be those most interested in municipal affairs and not those with a particular interest in education. They felt that education might suffer from having to compete with other local services for its share of the tax dollar. Judging by the amount of time spent by school unit trustees on school administration, they suggested that county councillors, responsible for both school and municipal services, might be overburdened. Although the employment of a county manager or other administrators would relieve the burden, the respondents indicated that there might be a tendency to shift control from elected to appointed officials. Finally, they were concerned that the employment of administrative and technical personnel would add to the cost of local government. These objections, however, may stem from insufficient familiarity with the principles and operation of the county form of government.

The Commission in its report on Rural Roads and Local Government analysed in detail the operation of the county form of government and its possible impact on education. On the basis of its analysis the Commission concluded that a single agency for school and municipal services would be able to undertake co-ordinated long-term planning and execution of program more effectively than several overlapping jurisdictions. The provision of school bus routes would be facilitated, for instance. A single agency would be able to allocate financial resources with a view to the total needs of the area. Because of its greater financial resources, the county would be able to employ qualified technical and administrative personnel. Costs would not rise unduly because economies could be achieved through sharing of offices, equipment, and personnel by school and municipal services. County councillors would be free to devote themselves to policy-making for the unit as a whole, and administrative and technical personnel would work under their direction in the execution of policy. According to the experience of counties that have been in operation for some time, public-spirited citizens, equally interested in school and municipal affairs, can be found to serve as county councillors. Finally, long-term planning of local services, greater financial resources, competent administrative and technical personnel, and ability to utilize provincial aid effectively would lead to improved local services.

Effect of County Government on Education in Alberta[64]

In 1950, Alberta passed legislation authorizing the establishment of counties, and as of 1955 seven counties have been established.[65] In 1953, a Co-Terminous Boundaries Commission was appointed to establish coterminous boundaries for school divisions and municipal districts throughout the province. Its work is not yet completed.

The Commission through an independent field study in Alberta surveyed the attitude of education officials towards the county form of government and examined the effect of the county on education. When the counties were first instituted, the Alberta School Trustees' Association expressed some opposition to counties based on administrative practices rather than principle. Department of Education officials in Alberta at first also had some reservations about the establishment of counties. Fear was expressed that education would suffer because of the election of councillors for their interest in municipal affairs and that education would be at a disadvantage in competing with other local services for the tax dollar.

In practice, neither of these fears has materialized. Although only two of the county councillors in the first four counties established were former school trustees in school divisions, no evidence exists that the selection of councillors has been detrimental to education. In fact, one county councillor suggested that because of inexperience with school affairs the county council was prone to oversupport school requirements until it was entirely familiar with educational needs. With respect to competition for financial resources, the Department of Education in Alberta has received no complaint of inequity. No evidence exists of any increased lack of balance in expenditures.

After several years of experience with county government, the Alberta Department of Education evaluated county government favourably:

> From the point of view of the Department of Education, or at least its officers, I think we should have to say that the counties seem to continue to do precisely the same things as the division. We have no evidence of significant changes in service or expense. Uniformity of taxation over the county area has been achieved.
>
> Internal disharmony respecting roads and tax rates has been eliminated, or at least is not evident from our distance (but strangely during the period of existence of the counties, it has also subsided in greater portions of the province not so organized). Perhaps the competitors have become exhausted.
>
> Partly influenced by county experience, we have now embarked on another venture under which, without fusion of local government, school and municipal areas are being made coterminous. This will overcome the multiple requisitioning and disparity of rates and will also give each divisional board only one R.M. to deal with, which should save time and effort and permit closer liaison.[66]

Administrative experience has varied in the counties because of differences in size, resources, length of organization, and history of relationship between education and municipal authorities. A uniform evaluation of the counties is therefore not possible. School superintendents generally agreed, however, that the superintendents have been relieved of considerable administrative detail, a change which they in general welcomed, and that the counties hold great possibilities for co-ordination of school and municipal services, particularly with respect to centralization of school facilities and road construction. Some superintendents noted that counties did not remove education from ratepayer control, as had been feared, but rather that the interests of ratepayers were better served by counties than by the school divisions. Although local school boards were inactive in many areas, interest and activity had risen in Home and School Associations, which provide an effective medium for channelling ratepayer problems and comments to county councils.

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[64] See Chapter VIII of the Commission's report on Rural Roads and Local Government for a discussion of reorganization of local government in Alberta; also *Rural Local Government in Alberta*, mimeographed document prepared by the Secretariat of the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, available from Queen's Printer, Regina.

[65] Some of the counties were formed on petition of school boards.

[66] W. H. Swift, "Counties — Amalgamated Administration," *Canadian Education*, December, 1954, p. 45.

Local officials contacted in Alberta counties showed varying degrees of optimism as to acceptance of the county by ratepayers, but in every case local officials believed that the county would be maintained if a vote were held. These officials endorsed in general the principle of having the county council address itself to policy and the employment of sufficient administrative and technical staff to administer the policies defined by the council. Although the counties differ in staff complement and office organization, the most satisfactory arrangement appears to be that with an appointed secretary for each of the education and municipal committees of the county council.

In Alberta, then, the Department of Education and school superintendents feel generally that the institution of county government has not been detrimental to the welfare of education but that it is a step in the direction of improved administration of education. In their opinion, the majority of ratepayers in the counties share this feeling. Furthermore, education officials in Alberta believe that the establishment of coterminous areas for education and municipal services as a result of the work of the Co-Terminous Boundaries Commission will lead to province-wide improvements in the administration of education.

The Commission's Proposal for School-Municipal Integration

On the basis of its analysis of the requirements of local government and the functioning of the present rural municipal system, this Commission concluded in another study that rural municipalities must be reorganized on a larger area basis. An exhaustive study was made of possible alternatives which would best meet these three criteria: (1) adequate size of area, (2) sound jurisdictional relationships, and (3) integration of local activities. In the Commission's consideration, the most vital area for improving jurisdictional relationships and achieving better integration was that of municipal government and education. From its analysis the Commission concluded that either a county system or a modified county system would best serve the needs of modern rural life. In a county system, school and municipal authority over a common area would be vested in a single county council. In a modified county, school unit and municipal government boundaries would be coterminous, but their administrative authorities would be separate.

Maximum integration would be achieved in the county with its single governing authority, but the modified county offers a practical alternative. In the modified county, integration would be achieved through a permanent school-municipal committee. If, after gaining experience with the modified county, ratepayers desired more complete school - municipal integration, the transition to full county government could be easily achieved.

In defining the boundaries of larger coterminous units, due consideration must be given such factors as functional trading areas, tax assessment, farm population, existing administrative areas, and local preferences. In the process, some revisions in the boundaries of present school units undoubtedly will be required. Nevertheless, the long-term benefits to be derived in terms of improving the quality and quantity of local government services far outweigh the temporary inconveniences.

SUMMARY

Efforts on the part of citizens and educators for 30 years led to the passage of the Larger School Units Act in 1944. Improved standards of education, decreased density of rural population, a changed pattern of community association, increased interdependence of rural and urban people, and regrouping of school facilities made the system of small school districts unsatisfactory. The tax base of the small district was inadequate, and inequities in tax burden among school districts militated against equality of educational opportunity. The small district was unable to provide high school facilities and unable to provide uniform administration for larger attendance areas.

Larger school units, comprising approximately 80 school districts, administered by a Board of Trustees elected from district delegates in sub-units, have been established in 56 of the 60 superintendencies of the province. Units formed prior to 1949 automatically include rural, hamlet, and village districts and may include town and consolidated districts through agreements. Since 1949, town districts of under 2,000 population are included in newly formed units, and larger towns may be added by agreement. The majority of town districts are now included in units.

Four superintendencies remain unorganized as larger units. Under present legislation, the ratepayers have the right to request a vote before the establishment of a unit so that units are formed only with the support of a majority of the ratepayers. Widely divergent tax rates within an area designed as a single unit appear to be the most significant reason for opposition to larger units.

Each larger unit trustee represents a sub-unit. The trustees are compensated for attendance at board meetings and for time spent on unit business in the sub-unit. The unit board is responsible for financing and administering educational policy in the unit as a whole.

The larger units were mapped to conform with school district boundaries. Adequacy of communication, natural geographic barriers, and a reasonable administrative area were considered in the delineation of the units. Changes in the rural environment, a change in the prospective number of units, and the addition of towns have resulted in variations in unit sizes and in adaptability to meet modern educational needs of centralization.

The larger units levy a uniform tax over the entire area, except for adjustments between rural and urban areas. The municipal councils have a right of appeal only under special circumstances and are obliged to collect the taxes fixed by the school authorities and make payment to the school boards. School units are authorized to include in the levy certain levies for capital funds and cash reserves. Although the formation of larger units in itself provided a greater degree of equalization among school districts within the unit than had existed before formation of the unit, equalization grants from the Provincial Government were required to minimize the differences among units. Equalization grants to units differ from equalization grants to other types of school administration in that they are paid on a formula embodying an elementary - high school cost factor.

Administration of larger units is designed to permit ratepayer participation in local district affairs. Each district is entitled to send a delegate to the sub-unit level; delegates in each sub-unit then elect a unit trustee. The unit board thus elected, with the assistance of a secretary-treasurer and the superintendent appointed by the Department of Education, administers the educational program of the unit. The local district boards are expected to care for and manage local property, supervise the day-to-day needs of the school, and provide for local participation in educational matters.

Although the duties and responsibilities of the unit and the districts are well defined, co-ordination of their administrative activities could be improved. Many local boards have lost interest in school administration, and some unit boards have not been successful in effecting the liaison necessary to maintain the interest and support of local boards.

While the lack of interest on the part of local boards may handicap the efficiency of the unit administration, a more serious loss is the decline in ratepayer participation. A democratic and strong larger school unit requires maximum understanding and participation by citizens. Since the local board is the intermediary between ratepayers and the unit board, district boards that lack interest in school affairs or that have become completely inoperative threaten the democratic and effective functioning of units. The election - at - large of a unit trustee within each sub-unit would make unit administration more directly responsible to the ratepayers and would also provide equal opportunity to residents of all districts regardless of the status of individual school boards. The establishment of central boards in every large attendance area would facilitate ratepayer participation in the affairs of the central school. Home and School Associations offer opportunities for increasing ratepayer interest and participation in both unit and local school affairs.

Upon establishment, each larger unit is provided with a superintendent who represents the Department of Education in administrative and supervisory matters. The relationship between the larger unit board and the superintendent is in general adequate, although some ratepayers feel that the superintendents have assumed too much authority over local educational affairs. If this situation exists because of the ineffectiveness of elected representatives, the school trustees and ratepayers have the power to correct it.

Larger units were established with no reference to municipal boundaries. On the average, each larger unit includes all or parts of ten municipalities. Although there is no geographic relationship between larger units and municipalities, there is some administrative linkage, since almost one-half of the larger units have municipal councillors on the unit boards. The main responsibility of municipalities with respect to education is the collection of taxes. Municipalities resent the fact that larger units establish the levy, which may include a levy for capital expenditures, and the municipalities are obliged to collect and pay it without any voice in its determination.

In addition to fiscal problems, the need for providing adequate school bus routes has become a serious problem in some municipalities. Because of the overlapping of jurisdictions, establishing a bus route may involve one unit and many municipalities, or a municipality may be involved with two or three larger units. Co-ordination in planning is limited, and apparently co-ordinated planning, where it has occurred, has been undertaken largely on the initiative of educational authorities. Since regrouping of school facilities is likely to increase, some clarification of municipal-school relationships is necessary.

Larger school units, as autonomous administrative units, are not related to other local service agencies, although education is related to health, agriculture, and other local programs. Administrative coordination of related local programs would tend to raise the level of all local services.

Two proposals have been made to integrate the activities of larger school units with the work of other local agencies, particularly that of municipal government: (1) the establishment of coterminous school and municipal boundaries with some revision in present boundaries of school units and (2) the institution of a county form of government. Education officials generally recognize inadequacies in the delineation of present boundaries of school units and favour coterminous boundaries for school and municipal services. To provide for integration of school and municipal administrations, in the Commission's judgment, counties or modified counties should replace present rural municipalities. Modified counties would maintain the present separation of school and municipal administration, but boundaries of the two units would be coterminous. A full county system of local government, in which a single council administers both municipal and school affairs, may logically be the outgrowth of experience with modified counties.

CHAPTER VI

Financing Education in Saskatchewan

Since the formation of the province, education has been a primary financial concern of both the Provincial Government and local ratepayers. Extensions and improvements in educational facilities have been costly; education as a public expenditure has greatly increased. In 1905 total expenditures for education were one-half million dollars; in 1953 total expenditures for education exceeded $40 million. Changes in the rural educational system, the need for expanded facilities in urban centers, and means to provide increased educational opportunities will further increase the costs of education.

In general, education is administered and financed locally in Saskatchewan. The financial resources of each local area basically determine the educational opportunity available to students. Larger units of administration were instituted to decrease disparities caused by varying financial resources and to provide equality of educational opportunity over wide areas. Equalization grants from the provincial Department of Education were instituted to eliminate gross inequalities in resources in different areas of the province. The primary question to be answered in this chapter is whether financial resources for education are distributed in a manner that provides equitable opportunity for all students regardless of environmental circumstances.

A second question to be considered concerns aspects of the level of expenditure. The provision of education in a sparsely settled and changing region is of necessity costly. Larger units of administration were established in Saskatchewan and elsewhere to introduce economies into rural education. Educational costs have risen and are likely to increase. School boards have been pressed to maintain standards with limited financial resources. Some regrouping of rural facilities has taken place. Although these changes have improved educational opportunity, they have also introduced new and unfamiliar costs that have met with some resistance. Economic conditions are continually requiring administrators of education to study and evaluate methods of attaining maximum efficiency without sacrificing the quality of education.

Adjustments in the financing of education over the years were reviewed in Chapter III. This chapter presents a detailed analysis of the current financial structure of education in Saskatchewan, with particular reference to rural education. Two special aspects of financing are considered—the economics of regrouping of school facilities and the effectiveness of present equalization grants.

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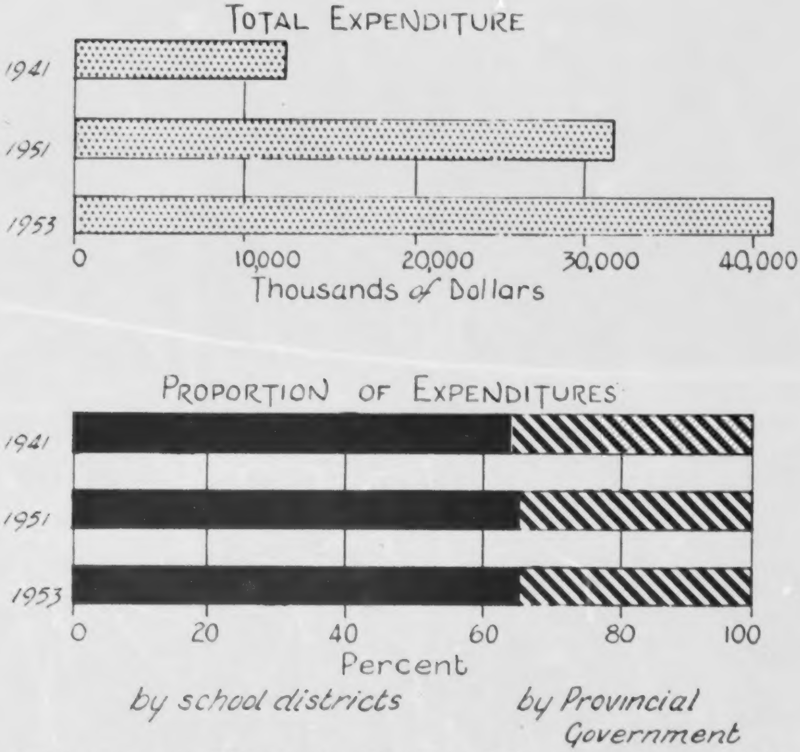
COSTS OF EDUCATION

The total cost of education in Saskatchewan reached a high of approximately $40 million in 1953.[1] Figure 20 shows that the total cost of education to the school districts and the Provincial Government increased from approximately $12 million in 1941 to $40 million in 1953. The disposition of public funds for education is the administrative responsibility of the Department of Education, the University of Saskatchewan, local school boards, and a few other departments of the Provincial Government, such as the Department of Public Works, which is responsible for provincial buildings used for education.

FIGURE 20. TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-1953



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education and *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

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[1] This figure includes provincial contributions to the University of Saskatchewan but excludes costs associated with the University that are met from other funds.

Not only have total costs of education increased markedly since 1941, but per capita costs of education have also increased as the population has declined (Table 36). Expenditures for education were $14 per capita in 1941 and rose to $47 per capita in 1953. But in the same years total personal income rose, with the result that educational costs as a proportion of personal income remained relatively stable from 1941 to 1953. Thus, any serious reduction in total personal income might create hardships in the financing of education at present levels.

Disbursements of the Provincial Government for education have more than tripled since 1941, but during the same time all government expenditures have increased. Table 37 shows net disbursements of the Provincial Treasury by function of government for the years between 1941-42 and 1953-54. Table 38 compares the relative amount of total disbursements absorbed by each function. Although total expenditures for education have increased, expenditures for education as a proportion of net government disbursements have declined during this period.

Funds from the Provincial Government for education are provided in various forms—as school grants, other grants-in-aid (to the University, public libraries, and the Saskatchewan Arts Board) school loans, support for provincial schools (School for the Deaf, Teachers Colleges, Correspondence School), provincial education programs (education for soldiers' dependents, vocational training, audio-visual aids, adult education, physical fitness, provincial librarian's office), and as support for other functions including administration, teachers' superannuation plans, education in northern Saskatchewan, and textbooks.Table 39 shows the amount of provincial disbursements for education by types of expenditure. Average annual school grants in

TABLE 36. EDUCATION EXPENDITURES RELATIVE TO POPULATION AND PERSONAL INCOME, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-1953

Year	Total Expenditures for Education	Total Population	Education Expenditures Per Capita	Total Personal Income	Education Expenditures as Per Cent of Personal Income
	$000's	000's	$	$000,000's	%
1941	12,231	896	14.40	277	4.4
1946	19,597	833	23.50	602	3.2
1951	31,170	832	37.50	1,084	2.9
1952	35,620	843	43.20	1,184	3.0
1953	40,773	861	47.40	1,112	3.7

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education; *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan; *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, and *Memorandum on Estimated Population of Canada, June, 1954*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics; *National Accounts Income and Expenditure*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

TABLE 37. NET DISBURSEMENTS OF THE PROVINCIAL TREASURY BY FUNCTION OF GOVERNMENT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-42 TO 1953-54[*]

Function	1941-42	1951-52	1953-54
	Thousands of dollars		
Public Health[†]	3,008	20,060	22,390
Education	4,432	10,973	14,082
Social Welfare	11,015	7,388	7,236
Agriculture and Natural Resources	1,429	5,614	7,563
Highways	1,869	12,189	17,295
Other[‡]	8,874	22,428	36,660
Total	30,627	78,652	105,226

SOURCE: *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

[*] Net disbursements are made up of current government expenditures, plus capital borrowings less capital repayments during the year.

[†] Public Health net disbursements include those under the Saskatchewan Hospital Services Plan.

[‡] Disbursements for municipal affairs are included in "Other."

TABLE 38. RELATIVE NET DISBURSEMENTS OF THE PROVINCIAL TREASURY BY FUNCTION OF GOVERNMENT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-42 TO 1953-54

Function	Per Cent of Total Disbursements		
	1941-42	1951-52	1953-54
Public Health	9.8	25.5	21.3
Education	14.5	14.0	13.4
Social Welfare	36.0	9.4	6.9
Agriculture and Natural Resources	4.7	7.2	7.2
Highways	6.1	15.5	16.4
Other	28.9	28.4	34.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

TABLE 39. DISTRIBUTION OF PROVINCIAL NET DISBURSEMENTS FOR EDUCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-42 TO 1953-54

Purpose of Expenditure*	Average 1941-42 to 1945-46	1950-51	1953-54
	Thousands of dollars		
School grants	3,003	7,084	8,746
Other grants -in-aid	574	1,731	2,235
School loans	10	623	517
Provincial schools	201	515	643
Provincial educational programs	146	252	352
Other functions	607	1,046	1,589
Total	4,541	11,251	14,082

SOURCE: *Saskatchewan Economic Review*, Vol. 2, No. 3, September, 1953, p. 6, and *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

* *School Grants:* includes all regular school grants, i.e., operation, maintenance, capital equipment, etc.

Other Grants-in-Aid: includes grants to the University, public libraries, Saskatchewan Arts Board, and Mechanics and Literary Institute.

School Loans: includes loans provided by, and repayable to the Department of Education.

Provincial Schools: School for the Deaf, Teachers Colleges, Correspondence School.

Provincial Educational Programs: includes education for soldiers' dependents, audio-visual aids, vocational training, adult education, physical fitness, Provincial Librarian's Office.

Other Functions: includes administration, Teachers' Superannuation Plans, education in Northern Saskatchewan, textbooks, etc.

the years 1941-42 to 1945-46 amounted to about $3 million. Since then, annual school grants have increased markedly to a high of $8.7 million in 1953-54. Although annual school grants have thus nearly tripled since 1941-42, grants as a proportion of government disbursements for education (Table 40) have shown a net decline from the 1941-45 average. Other grants-in-aid and school loans have become increased proportions of provincial disbursements for education.

With this background of education as a public expenditure, the financial picture of the formal school system may be scrutinized. Table 41 shows total expenditures of all school districts plus government expenditures for the administration and supervision of the formal school system. In actual dollars, the per capita cost of operating the formal school system has risen, but the percentage of personal income allocated to support of the school system has remained relatively stable because of a rise in total personal income.

From 1941 to 1953, the school levy in rural municipalities fluctuated between 2.1 per cent and 7.2 per cent of net farm income (Table 42). The school tax levy almost tripled from 1941 to 1953, while net farm income increased seven times. In 1954, however, net farm income decreased to its lowest point since 1941, and if the school levy in 1954 is found to equal that of 1953, the levy as a percentage of net farm income will be at its highest point since the 1930's.

TABLE 40. RELATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF PROVINCIAL NET DISBURSEMENTS FOR EDUCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-42 TO 1953-54

Purpose of Expenditure	Per Cent of Total Disbursements		
	Average 1941-42 to 1945-46	1950-51	1953-54
School grants	66.1	63.0	62.1
Other grants-in-aid	12.6	15.4	15.9
School loans	0.2	5.5	3.7
Provincial schools	4.4	4.6	4.5
Provincial educational programs	3.2	2.2	2.5
Other functions	13.5	9.3	11.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: *Saskatchewan Economic Review*, Vol. 2, No. 3, September, 1953, p. 6, and *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

TABLE 41. TOTAL COSTS OF ADMINISTERING AND OPERATING THE FORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM IN SASKATCHEWAN, SELECTED YEARS, 1941-42 TO 1953-54

Year	Provincial Government Expenditures*	School District Expenditures†	Total	Cost Per Capita	Per Cent of Personal Income
	$000's	$000's	$000's	$	%
1941-42	3,734	7,799	11,533	12.90	4.1
1946-47	4,947	13,219	18,166	21.80	3.0
1951-52	9,237	20,117	29,354	35.30	2.7
1953-54	11,350	26,635	37,985	44.10	3.4

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education and *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

* Provincial government expenditures in this table are made up of those classified in Public Accounts under Administration, Grants to Schools, Provincial Schools (Correspondence School and Teachers Colleges), Readers and Textbooks, and School Buildings and Loans. These exclude grants to the University and other educational institutions (e.g., Arts Board), Provincial Educational Program, and the School for the Deaf.

† Excluded are net government grants, expenditures of Northern Area and government aided schools, debit and credit payments, and repayment of short-term loans.

TABLE 42. SCHOOL TAX LEVY RELATED TO NET FARM INCOME, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-1954

Year	Net Farm Income	School Tax Levy in Rural Municipalities and Local Improvement Districts	
		Amount	Per Cent of Net Farm Income
	$000's	$000's	%
1941	70,055	5,081	7.2
1946	213,817	7,584	3.5
1951	552,962	11,524	2.1
1952	564,917	12,673	2.2
1953	474,290*	14,361	3.0
1954	124,000†	14,361‡	11.6

SOURCE: *Handbook of Agricultural Statistics*, Part II—Farm Income, Dominion Bureau of Statistics and *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs.

* Preliminary estimate.
† Estimate by Economic Advisory and Planning Board.
‡ Assuming same levy as in 1953.

In summary, education as a public expenditure reached a high of $40 million in 1953-54. A declining population has meant higher per capita costs for education, but increased total personal income has kept expenditures for education a relatively stable proportion of personal income. Expenditures for education as a proportion of government expenditures have declined slightly. Although government grants have nearly tripled since the early 1940's, the school tax paid by rural ratepayers has not been reduced, since the costs of education have increased, the population has declined, and per farm income has increased. Since 1951, the levy for education in rural municipalities has become a progressively higher proportion of net farm income and in 1954 was a higher proportion than at any time since the 1930's.

REVENUES FOR EDUCATION[2]

Education is financed by direct, local taxation, with government grants, loans, and sale of debentures providing the remainder of the financial requirements. The proportion each segment is of the total varies between and within the various types of school administration. Total receipts of all schools operating under the administration of the Department of Education have more than doubled in the eight-year period between 1946 and 1953—from $18 million in 1946 to more than $46 million in 1953 (Table 43). Non-operating receipts (receipts from loans, sale of debentures, and other sources) have increased markedly relative to the increase in operating receipts. In 1946, non-operating receipts represented 16 per cent of total receipts, while by 1953 they had increased to 33 per cent of total receipts. Essentially, this means that educational administrations have been increasing capital assets to their present level by increased borrowing. The relative increase in non-operating receipts represents in part the assumption of increased fixed costs which obviously restrict the flexibility of educational spending.

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[2] Pertaining only to the formal school system.

The major components of total receipts are taxes, grants, and loans. These three components represented 91 per cent of total income both in 1946 and in 1953 (Table 44). Relative to total receipts, taxes declined between 1946 and 1953, while loans and debentures have increased as a proportion of total receipts.

The shift in the relative proportion of each component of receipts to total receipts has not been consistent in all types of school administration. A review of receipts of various administrations indicates that the major change occurred in the financial activities of larger units and city elementary districts. Table 45 indicates the proportion of total receipts represented by taxes, grants, loans, and other sources of finances, between 1946 and 1953 for larger units, non-units, city elementary schools, and city secondary schools. With the exception of secondary schools, tax receipts as a proportion of total receipts declined in all types of school administration between 1946 and 1953. The most notable change during these years is the relative increase in the use of loans by

TABLE 43. TOTAL RECEIPTS OF ALL SCHOOLS OPERATING UNDER ADMINISTRATION OF DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946-1953*

Year	Operating Receipts	Non-Operating Receipts†	Total Receipts	Non-Operating as Per Cent of Total
	$000's	$000's	$000's	%
1946	15,526	3,034	18,560	16
1947	17,329	4,185	21,514	19
1948	20,603	6,246	26,849	23
1949	21,603	7,581	29,184	26
1950	23,020	9,973	32,993	30
1951	24,966	10,288	35,254	29
1952	29,389	11,704	41,093	29
1953	31,282	15,167	46,449	33

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Excludes carryover of debit and credit balances.

† Non-operating receipts include a high proportion of short-term loans to provide funds pending the receipt of taxes and grants.

TABLE 44. RELATIONSHIP OF COMPONENTS OF RECEIPTS TO TOTAL EDUCATIONAL RECEIPTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946-1953

Source of Receipts	Receipts		Relative Distribution	
	1946	1953	1946	1953
	$000's	$000's	%	%
Operating:				
Taxes	11,625	23,076	63	50
Grants*	3,548	7,553	19	16
Fees and other	353	653	2	1
Non-operating:				
Banks and loans	1,667	11,378	9	25
Debentures	218	2,911	1	6
Other	1,149	878	6	2
Total†	18,560	46,449	100	100

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Grants referred to here are net grants paid to districts after deductions have been made for teachers' superannuation payments, Teachers' Federation fees, Treasurer Bonds, and Saskatchewan Trustees' Association fees. School districts and units withhold Teachers' Federation fees and superannuation payments from teachers' salaries and, at appropriate intervals, notify the Department of Education of the amounts involved. The Department, in turn, deducts these amounts from grants and remits them to the appropriate offices.

† Excludes carryover of debit and credit balances.

TABLE 45. RELATIONSHIP OF MAJOR COMPONENTS OF RECEIPTS BY VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946 AND 1953*

Type of School Administration	Per Cent of Total Receipts Derived From:							
	Taxes		Grants		Loans		Other†	
	1946	1953	1946	1953	1946	1953	1946	1953
Larger school units	54.2	43.9	21.7	18.2	13.8	33.8	10.3	4.1
Non-units	69.8	67.9	20.0	19.5	2.9	6.0	7.3	6.6
City elementary schools	80.9	57.6	3.9	4.4	4.9	1.6	10.3	36.4
Secondary schools	73.0	76.7	17.9	11.7	2.0	1.9	7.1	9.7
All schools	62.6	49.7	19.1	16.3	9.0	24.5	9.3	9.5

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Excludes carryover of debit and credit balances.

† "Other" receipts include fees, other operating and non-operating receipts, and receipts from the sale of debentures.

larger units (largely short-term loans) and in the use of debentures[3] by city elementary districts.

Thus, all receipts for financing education have increased substantially in the past eight years. Non-operating receipts (loans and debentures) have increased relatively more than operating receipts. Of the various types of school administrations, larger units and city elementary districts have assumed the greatest proportion of fixed costs through borrowing funds and thus appear to be in the most vulnerable position in the event of any recession in the economy in the immediate future.[4]

Local Taxes

In Table 44 it has been shown that receipts for education from local taxes have declined from 63 per cent of total receipts in 1946 to 50 per cent in 1953. The relative importance of taxes in total receipts for education, however, varies among different types of school administration. In 1953, larger units collected about 44 per cent of their revenue from local taxes while non-unit schools received 68 per cent from this source; city elementary schools received 58 per cent of their receipts from taxes and secondary schools 77 per cent of their receipts from taxes.[5]

Education taxes are levied or requisitioned by school boards and collected by municipal authorities. In recent years, both school taxes and total municipal taxes increased (Table 46). For the province as a whole, the total municipal levy increased about 105 per cent between 1945 and 1953. The levy for education increased 132 per cent during this period of time. The education levy increased from approximately 42 per cent of the total municipal levy to 47 per cent.

It has been suggested that increased educational taxation has limited expenditures for public works. Analysis of the trends in municipal expenditures indicates, however, that in rural and urban municipalities combined, between 1945 and 1953, expenditures for public works and for education each increased 133 per cent. But in rural municipalities expenditures for public works have increased relatively more than expenditures for education (Table 47). Expenditures for public works increased 188 per cent in rural municipalities from 1944 to 1953, but expenditures for education increased proportionately less—144 per cent. Expenditures for both public works and education have shown comparable increases as percentages of the total levy. Thus, although the major portion of the municipal levy is paid for education and this portion has increased in the past eight years,

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[3] Receipts from the sale of debentures are included in "Other" in Table 45. Receipts from debentures, as a proportion of total receipts for each of the above administrations, for the years 1946 and 1953, were as follows: larger units .3% and 1.5%, non-units .94% and 2.2%, and city elementary 6.1% and 33.8%, with secondary schools using no debentures in either year.

[4] This must be qualified to some extent by the short-term nature of a large proportion of larger unit loans.

[5] A comparison of taxation for the support of rural schools as against urban schools is valid only if taxable properties in both types of municipalities are assessed according to similar standards. This question will be discussed at a later point.

TABLE 46. EDUCATION LEVY AND TOTAL MUNICIPAL LEVY, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945-1953

Year	Education Levy		Total Levy		Education Levy as Per Cent of Total Levy
	Amount	Index (1945=100)	Amount	Index (1945=100)	
	$000's		$000's		%
1945	10,456	100	24,985	100	42
1946	12,324	118	27,464	110	45
1947	13,538	129	30,093	120	45
1948	15,332	147	34,144	137	45
1949	16,994	163	37,020	148	46
1950	17,945	172	39,100	157	46
1951	19,488	186	42,012	168	46
1952	21,487	206	46,510	186	46
1953	24,262	232	51,301	205	47

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs.

TABLE 47. EDUCATION AND PUBLIC WORKS AS PROPORTIONS OF TOTAL EXPENDITURES OF RURAL MUNICIPALITIES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1944-1953

Year	Expenditures		Proportion of Total Expenditures	
	Public Works	Education	Public Works	Education
	$000's	$000's	%	%
1944	2,850	5,671	20.7	41.2
1946	4,232	7,293	23.6	40.7
1948	5,246	8,997	24.6	42.2
1950	5,003	10,387	22.4	46.5
1951	5,447	11,173	22.9	46.9
1952	7,576	12,276	27.4	44.5
1953	8,023	13,873	26.8	46.3

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs.

the proportion of the total municipal levy paid for public works has increased comparably.

Total educational levies, then, have shown an increase as a proportion of total municipal revenues. But the increase has not been consistent in all types of school administrations. In cities, the educational portion of municipal revenues showed a net increase between 1945 and 1953 of 5 per cent, compared to 4 per cent in the towns, 5 per cent in the villages, and 6 per cent in the rural municipalities (Table 48). These percentages may be somewhat misleading as far as total educational receipts are concerned. In cities substantial revenues for general municipal expenditures are derived from public utilities, thus making available a higher proportion of tax levies for educational purposes. The increase in educational levies has been greatest in towns and villages, next greatest in rural municipalities, and least in cities. Table 49 indicates the relative increases in educational levies for cities, towns, villages, rural municipalities, and local improvement districts between 1945 and 1953.

TABLE 48. PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL MUNICIPAL LEVY GOING TO EDUCATION IN CITY, TOWN, VILLAGE, RURAL MUNICIPALITIES, AND LOCAL IMPROVEMENT DISTRICTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945-1953

Year	Cities	Towns	Villages	Rural Municipalities	L.I.D.'s
			Per cent		
1945	51	42	47	38	40
1951	54	44	48	44	53
1952	54	45	50	43	56
1953	56	46	52	44	56

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs.

TABLE 49. EDUCATION LEVIES FOR CITY, TOWN, VILLAGE AND RURAL SCHOOLS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945-1953
(Index: 1945 = 100)

Year	Cities	Towns	Villages	Rural Municipalities	L.I.D.'s
1945	100	100	100	100	100
1951	175	235	197	183	227
1952	192	262	219	202	254
1953	215	302	241	228	290

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs.

Although the rural educational levy has more than doubled in the nine years noted, the rural ratepayer still pays less of his taxes towards education than the urban ratepayer. Of the total municipal levy in 1953, approximately 56 per cent went to education in the city, about 46 per cent in the town, 52 per cent in the village, 44 per cent in the rural municipality, and 56 per cent in the local improvement district (Table 48).

Total municipal levies have increased, but the amount of increase has varied in different types of school administrations. In addition, increases in assessment have altered the total levy without increasing the mill rate. Table 50 shows the increase in total municipal assessments and levies for various types of municipalities from 1946 to 1953.

Because of the increase in assessments, the great increase in the education levy did not necessarily mean increases in mill rates. But to compare mill rates of various types of municipal governments the levy must be related to revised assessments. If revised assessments are taken into account, it is found that rural mill rates for education more than doubled between 1945 and 1953, city rates increased 51 per cent, and town and village rates increased 80 per cent and 94 per cent respectively (Table 51).

In summary, local taxes for education have increased 131 per cent in the past eight years, while total municipal levies increased 105 per cent. Education taxes in all types of municipalities as a percentage of the total levy increased approximately 5 per cent in the past eight years, but cities, towns, villages, and rural municipalities varied slightly in the amount of the increase. Variations also exist among different types of municipalities as to the proportion of the total levy allocated to education. In 1953, rural municipalities paid approximately 44 per cent of their total levy for education, while towns paid 46 per cent, villages 52 per cent, and cities 56 per cent of their total levy for education.

A comparison of local taxes in rural and urban areas for the support of schools must be based on assessment, and it is assumed at

TABLE 50. PER CENT INCREASE IN TOTAL MUNICIPAL LEVY AND TOTAL ASSESSMENT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946-1953

Type of Municipality	Total Assessment			Total Levy		
	1946	1953	Per Cent Increase	1946	1953	Per Cent Increase
	$000's	$000's	%	$000's	$000's	%
City	112,569.9	156,060.3	39	5,668.2	10,761.5	90
Town	42,719.8	69,731.8	63	1,931.5	4,665.6	142
Village	54,130.1	65,427.8	21	1,782.1	3,425.4	92
Rural	614,142.7	647,662.2	5	17,396.6	31,393.1	80

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs.

TABLE 51. PER CENT INCREASE IN TAX RATES FOR EDUCATION IN RURAL AND URBAN MUNICIPALITIES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945-1953

Type of Municipality	1945	1953	Per Cent Increase
	Mills	Mills	%
City	25.2	38	50.8
Town	17.2	31	80.2
Village	13.9	27	94.2
Rural	9.7	21	116.5

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs.

this point that assessments in rural and urban areas are equitably derived. All assessments have increased in the past five years; rural assessments have increased the least and town assessments the most. During the same period levies for education increased, and despite increased assessments all mill rates increased. The total education levy increased three times in towns, almost two and a half times in villages, and slightly more than twice in rural and city districts. The impact of increasing educational costs appears to have been felt most critically in towns and least in cities. Because of changes in assessments and levy, actual mill rates increased by varying amounts in the different types of school administrations. Rural mill rates more than doubled, while city mill rates increased by only half.

Tax Arrears

Arrears in school taxes in 1952 and 1953 amounted to $5.6 and $5.7 million respectively or 47 per cent of the current year's levy. In 1952, arrears in school taxes in larger units represented 36 per cent of the current levy or about 11 per cent less than total school tax arrears. In units of low assessment, however, arrears were much greater, indicating that these units are having difficulty in collecting increased taxes for education or that equalization grants have not been sufficiently effective. Table 52 provides a comparison of arrears in school taxes as a proportion of current levy in larger units classified by assessment. Although arrears in school taxes in larger units were approximately 36 per cent of the current levy, units varied in school tax arrears from a low of 8 per cent of the current levy to a high of 117 per cent. Four units had tax arrears amounting to more than the 1952 levy.[6]

Thus, among larger units, units with low assessments are finding the tax burden most difficult to carry. In these units, further tax increases or a decline in income will aggravate the already critical problem of financing education. Conversely, any programs to stabilize farm incomes will make possible more effective educational planning and financing.

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[6] Data from financial statements of larger school units, Department of Education.

TABLE 52. RELATIONSHIP OF ARREARS IN SCHOOL TAXES TO CURRENT LEVY IN LARGER UNITS, 1952

Assessment Class	Total Education Levy	Education Arrears	Arrears as Per Cent of Levy
	$000's	$000's	%
$4-$7 million	1,460	918	63
$7.1-$10 million	4,103	1,377	34
$10.1-$13 million	3,871	1,206	31
$13.1-$16 million	1,283	503	39
$16.1-$19 million	931	267	29
$19.1-$22 million	706	153	22
All units	12,354	4,434	36

SOURCE: Files, Department of Education.

Loans

Under the School Act and the Larger Units Act, school boards are empowered to borrow money for current and capital expenses. Loans may be procured on the security of government grants and uncollected taxes. School units that are not permanently established may borrow from a fund provided by the Department of Education. After a unit is permanently established, it borrows through ordinary channels. Regulations stipulate that a school unit may not borrow amounts in excess of 5 per cent of its assessment.

If total educational receipts for all schools under the School Act are considered, it is apparent that loans and debentures have taken on a new importance in educational financing in recent years (Table 53). In 1946, loans and debentures represented 10 per cent of receipts compared with 31 per cent in 1953. The largest increase in loans occurred between 1946 and 1951.

The different types of school administration have varied in their reliance on loans for educational financing. Larger units and city elementary schools have incurred higher debts through borrowing than non-unit and secondary schools. Table 54 indicates that larger units and city elementary schools derived approximately 35 per cent of their total receipts through loans and debentures in 1953.

Loans to larger units have been made primarily through the banks and the capital building fund established by the Department of Education. These latter funds have been made available to larger units at interest rates of between 4 and 5 per cent. As more units become permanently established and no longer have access to the Department's capital building fund and if

TABLE 53. RELATIONSHIP OF LOANS AND DEBENTURES TO TOTAL RECEIPTS FOR ALL SCHOOLS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-1953

Year	Borrowings			Borrowings Relative to Total Receipts*		
	Debentures	Loans	Total	Debentures	Loans	Total
	$000's			Per cent		
1941	55	573	628	0.5	5.2	5.7
1946	218	1,668	1,886	1.2	9.0	10.2
1951	514	9,302	9,816	1.5	26.4	27.9
1952	1,018	10,071	11,089	2.5	24.5	27.0
1953	2,911	11,378	14,289	6.3	24.5	30.8

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.
* Total receipts excludes carryover of debit and credit balances.

high capital costs continue, larger units will have to resort to capital financing through normal channels and will thereby incur normal costs.

City elementary school districts appear to be faced with a difficult financial problem in that approximately 34 per cent of their income is derived through sale of debentures. As long as city elementary districts must continue to expand facilities, this reliance on borrowed funds will continue unless taxes or grants are increased.

In summary, loans and debentures in recent years have assumed greater importance in school financing. In 1946, all districts borrowed $1.9 million or 10 per cent of total receipts, while in 1953 borrowings were $14.3 million or 31 per cent of total receipts. Larger units and city elementary districts were the largest borrowers; larger units received the greatest proportion of their borrowings through loans, while city elementary districts used debentures. Unless a plan is devised by which school boards can borrow at minimum cost, the use of increasing amounts of borrowed money will create inflexibility in the financing of education.

Grants

Provincial grants have been a feature of school financing since the passage of the Northwest Territories Act in 1885, when grants were paid on the basis of teachers' qualifications, number of days of operation of the school, and level of education provided. This Act was followed by the School Grants Ordinance of 1901, which differentiated grants for rural districts and grants for village and town districts. When the province was organized, the system of school grants that had been used in the Territories was continued. Throughout the years, various kinds of grants have been provided to meet changes in education

TABLE 54. LOANS AND DEBENTURES AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL RECEIPTS BY TYPES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946 AND 1953

Type of School Administration	Loans as Per Cent of Total Receipts		Debentures as Per Cent of Total Receipts		Total Borrowings as Per Cent of Total Receipts	
	1946	1953	1946	1953	1946	1953
Larger school units	13.8	33.8	0.2	1.4	14.0	35.2
Non-unit schools	2.9	6.0	0.9	2.2	3.8	8.2
City elementary	4.9	1.6	6.1	33.8	11.0	35.5
City secondary	2.0	1.9	—*	—	2.0	1.9

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* School districts under the Secondary School Act finance capital expenditures through debentures, although none issued debentures in either 1946 or 1953. Since there are only 13 secondary districts and only a few more collegiates, building requirements are moderate compared to other types of schools. When the present high numbers of elementary students reach high school age, building requirements will probably increase substantially. A secondary district does not issue debentures itself but petitions the town or city council, which registers the vote of the ratepayers and borrows the money.

The relative importance of grants in the financing of education has changed between 1941 and 1953. In 1941, grants accounted for approximately 24 per cent of total receipts; in 1953, grants contributed approximately 18 per cent of receipts (Table 55).

Although grants have declined slightly in importance in relation to total district financing, the decline has not been consistent in all types of school administration. Between 1946 and 1953, grants to larger units declined about 4 per cent, from 22 to 18 per cent of total receipts; grants to non-units and city elementary districts remained stable at about 20 per cent and 4 per cent respectively of total receipts, and grants to secondary districts declined approximately 6 per cent from 18 to 12 per cent (cf. Table 45).

The types of grants paid by the Department of Education have varied through the years because of changes in education and particularly in the organization of education. At present, grants are classified as operation grants, conveyance grants, building and equipment grants, equalization grants, and special grants. Table 56 shows the amounts of grants apportioned to various purposes for schools under the School Act; Table 57 shows these amounts as proportions of total grants.

Operation Grants

Operation grants have increased from $2.3 million in 1939-40 to $3.3 million in 1953-54. As a proportion of total grants, however, operation grants have decreased from 97 per cent to 38 per cent during the same years. Other types of grants have increased relatively more than grants for school operation.

TABLE 55. RELATIONSHIP OF GRANTS TO TOTAL RECEIPTS FOR ALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-1953*

Year	Gross Grants	Total Receipts†	Grants as Per Cent Total Receipts	Total Receipts (Less Debenture Receipts)	Grants as Per Cent Total (Less Debenture Receipts)
	$000's	$000's	%	$000's	%
1941	2,688‡	11,282**	23.8	11,227	23.9
1946	3,843	18,856	20.3	18,638	20.6
1951	7,466	36,013	20.7	35,499	21.0
1952	8,722	42,149	20.6	41,131	21.2
1953	8,532	47,428	17.9	44,516	19.2

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Excludes carryover of debit and credit balances.

† Total receipts include gross grants paid by the Department of Education; however, a proportion of grants is withheld from direct payment to districts and paid on their behalf for teachers' superannuation, Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation fees, Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association fees and treasurers bonds. For the years cited in the table, the amounts of these proportions were: $117,764; $286,047; $738,983; $1,056,622; and $978,419.

‡ In 1941 grants did not include proportions of grants withheld for districts under the Secondary and Vocational Education Acts.

** In 1941 receipts did not include borowings by note and debenture for districts under the Secondary and Vocational Education Acts.

Conveyance Grants

Grants to aid transportation of students to school were instituted in 1912-13 with the amendment of the School Act that authorized consolidated districts. Grants to consolidated districts for transportation have been retained, and in addition conveyance grants to other types of school administration have greatly increased conveyance grants.

The original conveyance grants were paid at the rate of one-third of the actual cost of conveyance. More recently, grants for conveyance have been paid on the basis of one-half the driver's wages. If the unit buys the conveyance equipment, the capital costs of conveyance are not financed through conveyance grants but through capital grants, which amount to 25 per cent of the cost of buses or bombardiers. If the unit enters into an agreement with an operator to transport students, the Department of Education reimburses the unit for 50 per cent of the cost to a maximum of $600 per district.

Conveyance grants include not only the grant to aid transportation but also assistance for students in districts in which no conveying is done. The grant available to any district where no school is operating or where a room is closed may not exceed $600 per year. Grants in 1955 were calculated as follows:

1) For conveyance—50 per cent of driver's wages.

2) For board and room—50 per cent of the cost to a maximum of $9.00 per month.

3) Fees—if a student is sent to a non-unit school the unit receives

TABLE 56. GOVERNMENT GRANTS FOR SCHOOLS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1939-40 TO 1953-54

Purpose of Grant	1939-40	1944-45	1949-50	1953-54
	Thousands of dollars			
School operation	2,289	2,190	2,487	3,258
Conveyance	46	109	179	331
Statutory building and equipment	10	11	50	25
Special building and equipment	2	88	1,053	1,555
Equalization	21	375	1,936	3,354
Special	4	125	16	3
Total	2,372	2,898	5,721	8,526

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

TABLE 57. RELATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF GOVERNMENT GRANTS FOR SCHOOLS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1939-40 TO 1953-54

	Per Cent of Total Grants			
Purpose of Grant	1939-40	1944-45	1949-50	1953-54
School operation	96.5	75.5	43.5	38.2
Conveyance	1.9	3.8	3.1	3.9
Statutory building and equipment	0.4	0.4	0.9	0.3
Special building and equipment	0.1	3.1	18.4	18.2
Equalization	0.9	12.9	33.8	39.3
Special	0.2	4.3	0.3	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

grants equal to 50 per cent of the cost of tuition up to a maximum of $45.00 per year for high school students or $30.00 per year for elementary students.

4) Fifty per cent of the cost of any special arrangement such as payment of rent for the family, or a per diem arrangement covering conveyance and tuition, or board, room and tuition.

In the twenty-five years since 1930-31, grants for conveyance have increased from approximately

$68,000 to more than $500,000. In 1931, consolidated schools received $57,500 of total conveyance grants of $68,000, while in 1954-55, schools other than consolidated schools received grants of $450,000 out of total conveyance grants of $518,000.

Building and Equipment Grants

Building and equipment grants were, until 1954, divided into two classes—statutory and special. Statutory building grants were for many years paid for such expenditures as the first new school in a school district, a teacher's residence, or classroom equipment. Statutory equipment grants, supplied by the Provincial Government on the condition that they be matched by local funds, were available for the purchase of equipment for science, home economics and shop, and agriculture classes, as well as for audio-visual aids and noon lunches.

Statutory building and equipment grants are no longer available, but grants of this nature are included in building and equipment grants. Building and equipment grants may be applied as well to all other building, equipment, and repair projects. Special building and repair grants were first instituted in 1939, although repair grants were not individually recorded until 1944.

Statutory building and equipment grants have not (since 1929-30) amounted to more than one per cent of total grants (Table 57). Special building and equipment grants, however, have become relatively important in the past ten years. In 1944-45, special building and equipment grants amounted to approximately 3 per cent of total grants, but by 1953-54 they had increased to represent 18 per cent of total grants.

Building and equipment grants are now paid on the basis of the following formula:[7]

$$\frac{\begin{array}{ccc}\text{Approved expenditure[8]} & & \text{1 mill on total} \\ \text{for capital and repairs} & - & \text{taxable assessment}\end{array}}{\text{Assessment per classroom}} \times \$40{,}000 = \text{Grant}$$

An example of the calculation of a grant is as follows:

Assessment of unit	$10,000,000
No. of operating rooms	90
No. of conveying districts	20
Assessment per classroom[9]	$\frac{\$10{,}000{,}000}{100} = \$100{,}000$

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[7] Prior to the development of this formula, special building and equipment grants were computed more informally.

[8] In determining the "approved expenditure," the Department of Education takes into account the educational need and general financial competence of the unit. The maximum total program of capital and repair expenditures which may be used for grant calculation purposes is $100,000.

[9] Assessment per classroom is calculated by dividing total assessment by number of operating classrooms plus one-half of the districts conveying.

Expenditure program		
2 one-room schools at $7,500 each	$	15,000
1 three-room school at $10,000 per room		30,000
Repairs (operating rooms × $200) (90 × $200)		18,000
Approved Expenditure	$	63,000

$$\text{Grant} = \frac{(\$63{,}000 - \$10{,}000)}{\$100{,}000} \times \$40{,}000 = \$21{,}200$$

The amount of special building and equipment grants has risen markedly in recent years. In 1944, total grants paid for building and repairs were about $88,000, while in 1953-54 they amounted to nearly $1.6 million. Table 58 shows the increase in special building, equipment, and repair grants in selected years since 1944.

A portion of the grants entitled "special building and equipment grants" has been provided through the Dominion-Provincial Vocational Training Agreement since 1947-48.[10] With the aid of funds provided under this agreement, the province has expanded facilities for vocational and technical education to include 32 school centers in the province. These 32 projects have included the building of 17 new schools and extensions for 13 existing schools. In addition, equipment has been added to two schools, and three dormitories have been built.[11] Exclusive of the School of Agriculture at the University of Saskatchewan, the Saskatoon School for the Deaf, and the three technical schools

TABLE 58. GOVERNMENT GRANTS FOR CAPITAL EXPENDITURES AND REPAIRS FOR SCHOOLS OPERATING UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1944-45 TO 1953-54

Year	Provincial Grants		Dominion-Provincial Grants		Total
	Building and Equipment	Repairs	Building	Equipment	
	Thousands of dollars				
1944-45	50	38	—	—	88
1950-51	726	150	425	96	1,397
1951-52	934	149	293	219	1,595
1952-53	1,060	169	97	34	1,360
1953-54	1,399	151	—	5	1,555

Source: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

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[10] See Appendix VIII for a description of the Dominion-Provincial Vocational Training Agreement.

[11] See Appendix II.

operated under the Vocational Education Act, 10 of the vocational education projects are in schools administered under the Secondary Education Act and the remaining 17 are in towns or villages, some of which are included in larger units.

Under the Vocational Training Agreement, the Department of Education makes grants up to 80 per cent of capital expenditures for vocational facilities in composite schools and up to 75 per cent of capital expenditures for space for vocational classes in technical collegiates. In addition, dormitories were built at Kindersley, Humboldt, and Sturgis with partial financial assistance from funds provided under the agreement. These expenditures for dormitories were not sanctioned by the agreement but were specially authorized by the federal Department of Labour. In addition to capital grants, vocational education is assisted by payment of a grant of $5.75 per day for every room devoted solely to vocational or technical instruction. Vocational assistance is also paid to those schools in which more limited vocational education is offered. If a teacher spends 60 to 80 per cent of his time on vocational classes, the grant is $5.25 per day; if 40 to 60 per cent, the grant is $4.75 per day. These lesser grants are common to small high schools and composite schools.

In order to ensure the most beneficial use of vocational agreement funds, the Department of Education has tried to require that a school district have a minimum enrolment or potential enrolment of 150 high school students before funds are allocated for building a composite school. The list of schools built under this agreement indicates that in some cases this stipulation has necessitated the inclusion of students who have been brought in from surrounding areas either by conveyance or to stay in dormitories. In Kindersley, Sturgis, and Humboldt, assistance for dormitory construction was secured by thus serving students from the surrounding areas.

From 1947-48 until 1953-54, building and equipment grants of all types amounted to a total of $9.4 million. Dominion-Provincial grants in the same period amounted to $2.3 million or nearly 25 per cent of the total. Federal funds—about one-half of this total—have been an important contribution to the capital expenditure program of the past few years.

Equalization Grants

Chapter II pointed out that equalization grants are now available to all school districts regardless of the type of administration, provided the financial condition of the district warrants the grant. Rural and village districts receive grants at the rate of 14 mills on the difference between the actual per room assessment and $130,000 per room. Special grants are made available to those districts in which the assessment is below $60,000 per room. Town and city schools with fewer than 50 rooms in operation receive grants equal to 14 mills on the difference between actual assessment and $125,000 per room, while larger units and city districts receive equalization grants determined by the amount that certain basic costs exceed certain aspects of revenue.

An example of the computation of equalization grants in larger units is as follows: Let us suppose that a unit has 80 school districts, 30 of which are closed and conveying. Ten of the districts each have a high school room and three other rooms. The rural assessment is $7 million, and the urban assessment is $3 million.

Revenues (A)		
Rural levy—15 mills on $7,000,000	$ 105,000	
Urban levy—19.5 mills on $3,000,000	58,500	
		$ 163,500
Grants under School Grants Act		
80 elementary rooms at $600 each	$ 48,000	
10 high school rooms at $800 each	8,000	
30 conveying districts at $600 each	18,000	
		74,000
		$ 237,500
Cost of Program (B)		
10 high school rooms at $3,240 each	$ 32,400	
80 other rooms at $3,040 each	243,200	
30 conveying districts at $1,650	49,500	
		$ 325,100

Equalization Grant equals (B – A) $325,100 – $237,500 = $87,600

Equalization grants for larger units have always been calculated in this way, although cost allowances and basic mill rates have varied. The minimum grant is $10,000 per unit.

Since 1950, equalization grants have become the main type of school grant. Because they are based on rural and urban assessments, school unit receipts vary greatly. Total grants as a percentage of unit receipts vary from a low of 14 per cent to a high of 68 per cent. Table 59 shows the number of units receiving various percentages of receipts through grants in 1952.

Equalization grants to schools in various types of school administration also vary. In larger units, equalization grants in the past few years have approximated 45 per cent of total grants (cf. Table 32, Chapter V), while in non-unit districts (exclusive of districts under the Secondary and Vocational Acts) equalization grants, from 1948 to 1952, provided approximately 15 per cent of total grants. In the past two years, equalization grants have increased relatively so that they now provide 24 per cent of total grants in non-units (Figure 21).

In summary, equalization grants have increased to represent approximately 39 per cent of total grants paid to all schools. Different formulas are used for calculation of the grants for different types of school administration. The main difference is that equalization grants for larger units are based on a calculation which considers an elementary-secondary school cost differential, while grants for non-unit schools are calculated on the difference between the actual and specified assessment. Other aspects of equalization grants will be analysed in a later section of this chapter.

Special Grants

Special grants may be awarded at the discretion of the Minister of Education for any purpose. These

TABLE 59. LARGER SCHOOL UNITS CLASSIFIED BY PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL RECEIPTS MADE UP OF GOVERNMENT GRANTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1952

	School Units in Each Category	
Percentage of Receipts Made Up of Grants	Number	Per Cent
11%–20% (Units No. 2, 6, 11, 12, 22, 43, 53.)	7	14.3
21%–30% (Units No. 1, 3, 7, 10, 15, 18, 20, 24, 30, 31, 32, 34, 44, 54, 55, 59.)	16	32.7
31%–40% (Units No. 4, 8, 28, 29, 30, 40, 51, 42, 47, 50, 63.)	11	22.4
41%–50% (Units No. 17, 23, 26, 35, 38, 45, 46, 56.)	8	16.3
51%–60% (Units No. 57, 60, 61, 65, 66.)	5	10.2
61%–70% (Units No. 58, 64.)	2	4.1
Total	49	100.0

Source: Questionnaires returned by boards of larger school units to the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.

grants are usually made to districts or areas in which assessment is low and student population high. Special grants are usually quite limited, and in the past five years they have never reached one per cent of total grants for all districts under the School Act.

* * *

In total, although gross government grants to school districts have increased from approximately $2.7 million in 1941 to $8.5 million in 1953, grants as a proportion of total receipts have declined. The decline has been most marked in secondary districts and larger units, while in non-unit and city elementary districts grants have maintained a stable position relative to total receipts. Operation, equalization, and special building and equipment grants together provide 95 per cent of total grants.

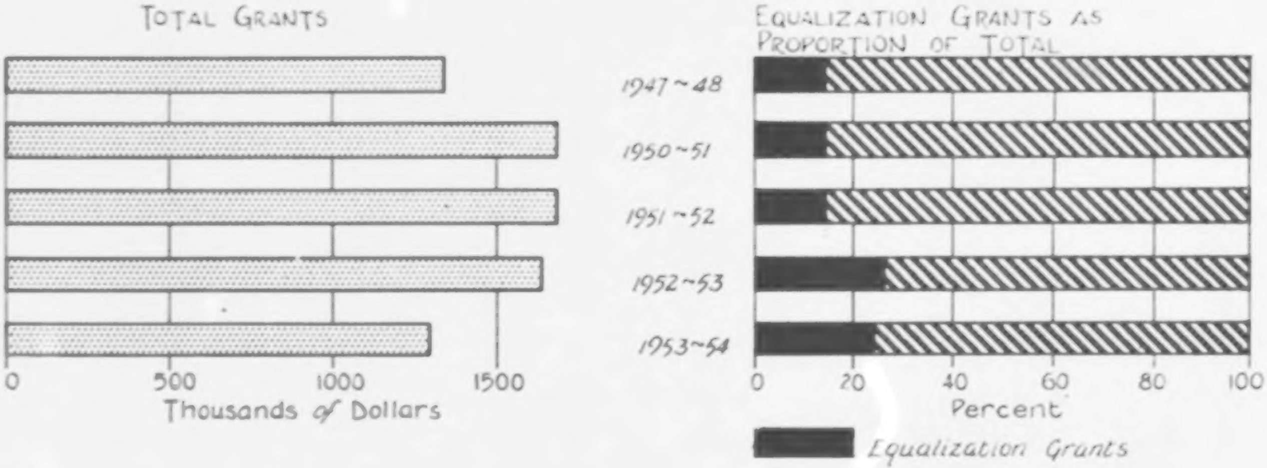
Although taxes and government grants have been increasing in amount, both have been declining as a proportion of total receipts as loans and debentures have become more prominent. Increases in building and equipment grants relative to total grants undoubtedly reflect the capital costs of centralization of school facilities.

EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION

Chapter III reviewed total educational expenditures of the province and all school districts. This section analyses the cost structure of the school system to gain some insight into the changing costs of providing modern education.

Excluding government grants, total expenditures of all school districts (exclusive of government aided schools and those in the Northern Area of Administration) increased from $7.8 million in 1941-42 to $26.7 million in 1953-54 (cf. Figure 20). When provincial expenditures for the formal school system are added, total expenditures increased from $11.5 million in 1941-42 to $37.9 million

FIGURE 21. RELATIONSHIP OF EQUALIZATION GRANTS TO TOTAL GRANTS IN NON-UNIT SCHOOL DISTRICTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1947-48 TO 1953-54



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

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in 1953-54. The great increase in costs is partly explained by the accumulation of many school debts during the 1930's, which had to be paid off in the ten-year period following the depression. Not only was it necessary to pay off debts, but buildings and equipment that had deteriorated in the depression years had to be improved in a period of generally rising costs. In addition to these expenditures, education administrators were faced with the necessity of providing central facilities and conveyance equipment to facilitate attendance of students from an increasing number of closed schools.

Summaries of school district receipts and payments are recorded in operating and non-operating categories. Operating payments are expenditures incurred in the actual operation and maintenance of schools; non-operating payments include the repayment of loans, debentures, and other expenses not included in routine operating expenses.

School districts are authorized to finance capital costs from operating receipts. For the moment, in order to see the trend in expenditures for actual operation and maintenance of schools, capital expenditures are subtracted from operating payments and added to non-operating payments.[12] Figure 22 indicates that operating payments thus defined have doubled to a high of $27 million from 1945 to 1953, while non-operating costs (primarily capital expenditures from debenture receipts) have increased from a low of $460,000 in 1947 to $1.7 million in 1953. Non-operating expenditures, including capital expenditures, have increased relatively more than operating expenditures, reflecting the high capital costs of the past few years. The increase in the use of operating or current funds for capital expenditures also reflects the willingness of ratepayers to assume immediate responsibility for capital improvements.

Although both operating and non-operating expenditures have been increasing, not all components of education costs have increased equally. The main components of operating expenditures—instruction and plant operation and maintenance—represented 81 per cent of all operating costs in 1946. Between 1946 and 1953 payments for these two items almost doubled, but lesser components increased considerably more. Table 60 indicates the relationship of each component of operating expenditures to total expenditures for 1946 and 1953 as well as the relative increase in 1953 over 1946. Total operating costs doubled between 1946 and 1953. Expenditures for conveyance, auxiliary services, and capital expenditures increased considerably more, with capital expenditures from operating receipts increasing by more than 400 per cent. Relative to total expenditures, the costs of administration, instruction, and plant operation declined. This analysis of the expenditure pattern reflects the trend towards centralization and the high capital costs of conveyance equipment and central facilities.

It might therefore be expected that gross differences would exist in proportionate expenditures among various types of school administra-

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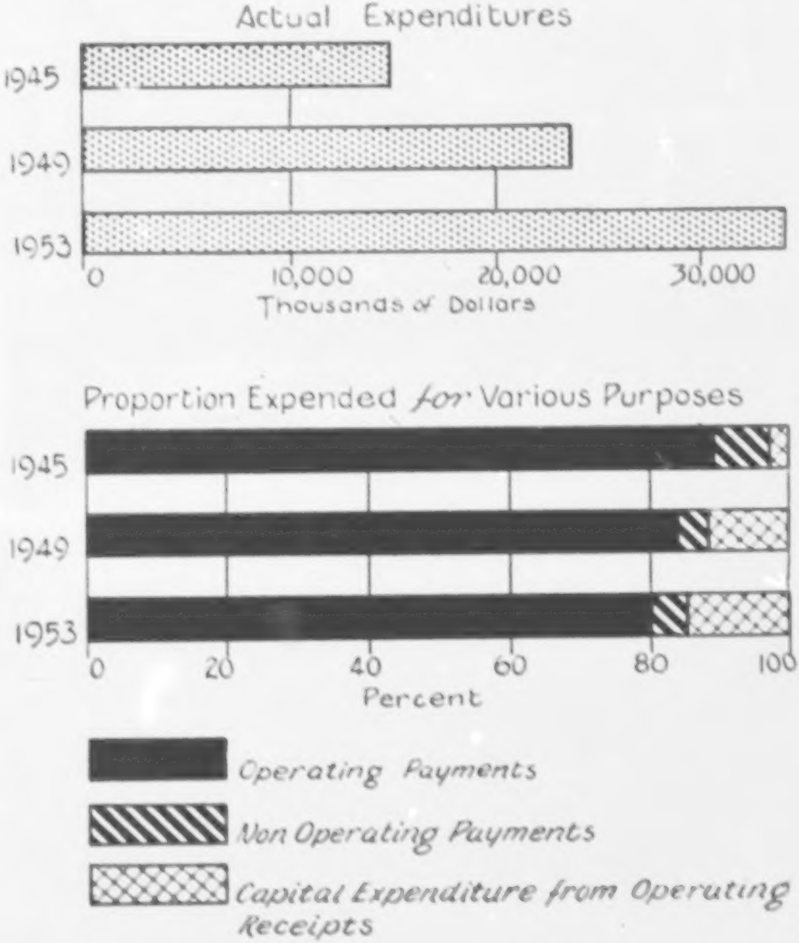
[12] Operating payments include expenditures for administration, instruction, plant operation and maintenance, fees, conveyance, auxiliary services, capital expenditures from operating or current receipts and debt charges. Non-operating payments include primarily the repayment of loans and capital expenditures as financed by the sale of debentures.

FIGURE 22. EXPENDITURES OF ALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945, 1949 AND 1953



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I, supporting data for Figure 14.)

tion. Table 61, in providing a breakdown of operating expenditures for the different types of school administration, shows, however, little difference in proportionate expenditures by different types of school administration.

The greatest differences are with respect to conveyance, capital expenditures, and debt charges. Non-unit rural and village districts spend proportionately more on conveyance than any other type of school administration, while larger units

TABLE 60. COMPONENTS OF OPERATING EXPENDITURES IN ALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946 AND 1953*

Type of Expenditure	1946 Expenditures		1953 Expenditures		Percentage Increase 1953 Over 1946
	Amount	Per Cent of Total	Amount	Per Cent of Total	
	$	%	$	%	%
Administration	553,276	3.5	992,559	3.1	79.4
Instruction†	9,732,540	61.4	17,878,373	55.4	83.7
Plant operation and maintenance	3,175,792	20.0	5,170,906	16.0	62.8
Fees	65,906	0.4	81,458	0.3	23.6
Conveyance	421,124	2.6	1,105,128	3.4	162.4
Auxiliary services‡	251,508	1.6	647,299	2.0	157.4
Capital from operating receipts	985,946	6.2	5,020,909	15.6	409.2
Debt charges	672,440	4.3	1,354,285	4.2	101.4
Total	15,858,532	100.0	32,250,917	100.0	103.4

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Government aided schools and districts in the Northern Area of Administration are excluded.

† These total costs of instruction do not include the full costs of teacher salaries; teacher contributions to the superannuation fund and Teachers' Federation fees have been deducted. In 1946 these deductions were $357,007; in 1951, $1,038,000. Thus costs of instruction are in fact somewhat higher than appear here.

‡ Auxiliary services include such items as hot lunches, medical and health services, music, drama, concerts, and picnics.

and city elementary districts are burdened with high capital expenditures. City elementary districts also spend relatively more on financing costs than do the other types of administration.

Capital Expenditures

The foregoing analysis has shown that capital expenditures as a component of operating expenditures represent the third largest cost to school districts and that between 1946 and 1953 capital expenditures from operating receipts increased more than 400 per cent. In addition, the greatest part of this increase is felt in larger units and city elementary districts.

Capital expenditures are financed not only from operating receipts but through debentures as well. Table 62 shows capital expenditures from operating receipts and capital expenditures from the sale of debentures. In 1953, capital expenditures from operating receipts amounted to more than $5 million, an expense which almost equalled expenditures for plant operation and maintenance (cf. Table 60). When capital expenditures through the sale of debentures are added, capital expenditures rank second only to costs of instruction as the main item in school financing (cf. Table 60). Although capital expenditures have been increasing as a proportion of

TABLE 61. EXPENDITURE COMPONENTS OF VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1953

Type of Expenditure	Per Cent of Total Expenditure					
	Non-Units				Larger School Units	Schools Under Secondary and Vocational Education Acts
	Rural	Village	Town	City		
Administration	3.0	2.3	2.1	3.1	3.0	4.5
Instruction	63.6	57.4	66.5	54.8	52.4	71.2
Plant operation and maintenance	19.5	15.9	19.0	18.6	15.2	14.5
Fees	1.8	.2	.5	—	.2	—
Conveyance	5.5	12.9	.7	.08	4.2	—
Auxiliary services	.5	.3	.4	.6	2.8	.2
Capital from operating receipts	3.9	7.8	6.5	14.9	18.3	7.7
Debt charges	2.2	3.2	4.3	8.0	3.9	1.9

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. For details of full payments see Appendix IX.

total operating receipts, the increases have not kept pace with total capital requirements. In fact, the proportion of capital expenditures derived from operating receipts declined in recent years.

The different types of school administration vary in the proportionate amounts of capital expenditure financed from operating receipts (Table 63). In 1953, non-unit rural districts financed approximately 80 per cent of capital expenditures through operating receipts; larger units financed 92 per cent and secondary schools 100 per cent of capital expenditures through operating receipts. Non-unit village, as well as town and city elementary districts finance considerably larger proportions of their capital expenditures through debentures and hence assume higher fixed costs. If non-unit village districts and larger units are excluded, debenture financing

TABLE 62. SOURCE OF FUNDS FOR CAPITAL EXPENDITURES FOR ALL SCHOOLS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1953*

Source	Amount	Per Cent
	$000's	
Operating receipts	5,021	82.4
Debentures	1,069	17.6
Total	6,090	100.0

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Government aided schools and districts in the Northern Area of Administration have been excluded from this calculation.

TABLE 63. CAPITAL EXPENDITURES BY TYPES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1952 AND 1953

Type of School Administration	1952				1953			
	Operating Receipts		Debentures		Operating Receipts		Debentures	
	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent
	$000's		$000's		$000's		$000's	
Non-Unit								
Rural	155	72.9	58	27.1	50	80.4	12	19.6
Village	52	62.3	32	37.7	69	48.3	74	51.7
Town	99	56.6	76	43.4	108	63.3	63	36.7
City Elementary	136	11.7	1,024	88.3	707	55.7	562	44.3
Larger Units	3,121	98.6	43	1.4	3,909	91.6	359	8.4
Secondary Schools	223	96.6	8	3.4	177	100.0	—	—

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

was lower in 1953 than in 1952. City elementary districts transferred from long-term capital financing to financing through operating receipts. A seven per cent increase in debenture financing by larger units between 1952 and 1953 probably reflects the reduction in the use of the provincial capital fund as more units became permanently established.

In summary, expenditures for administration, maintenance, and operation of all school districts have increased from $12.4 million in 1941-42 to $48.4 million in 1953-54. Operating expenditures, exclusive of capital expenditures from operating receipts, have doubled between 1945 and 1952. Non-operating payments, including capital financing, have increased considerably more—a development which reflects the high costs of new building and conveyance equipment.

While all operating costs have increased, the main change in the past few years has been the increase in capital expenditures from operating receipts, particularly in larger units and city elementary districts. Although greater proportions of operating receipts are used for capital expenditures, the percentage of capital expenditures financed from this source has declined as loans and debentures have been used more extensively. Larger units and secondary school districts in 1952 and 1953 financed virtually all capital expenditures from operating receipts, but non-unit schools used debentures more extensively. Secondary districts, however, had no sizeable capital expenditures, but in normal circumstances they, too, borrow through debentures.

SPECIAL ASPECTS OF FINANCING

Economics of Regrouping

The regrouping of school facilities has been the most significant trend in rural education. The closing of one-room rural schools and the establishment of conveyance systems to transport students to schools in central locations has had far-reaching implications for the financing of education. Since 1946, twenty per cent of the school districts have ceased to operate schools. In 1954, 1,613 school districts were not operating, 1,541 of which were conveying students. In this section, the costs and economies of centralization are explored.

School districts in 1953 spent slightly more than one million dollars ($900,000 spent by larger units) on conveyance, an increase of 162 per cent over conveyance expenditures in 1946 (cf. Table 60). Expenditures classified as conveyance include not only the costs of conveying students but also the costs of board and room where these expenses are paid on behalf of students from non-operating districts. Expenditures classified as auxiliary services also include some of the costs associated with conveyance, since some of the units classify the costs of conveyance for operating districts in this category. Auxiliary services thus calculated increased by 157 per cent between 1946 and 1953.

In an attempt to analyse the economies of the centralization of school facilities, the financial statements of a selection of school units were examined. The figures must be reviewed with some caution because the costs associated with centralization are not itemized individually. For example, costs of conveyance equipment are included under capital costs, and maintenance and repair of conveyance equipment are in some cases charged to the plant operation and maintenance account. Furthermore, the cost of conveyance equipment in any given year cannot be considered as a cost chargeable to one year's operation. In spite of these limitations, some observations and conclusions may be drawn from the analysis.

The units selected for comparison were those in which fewer than 10 per cent or more than 40 per cent of the rural districts had been closed in 1951. Thirteen units were included in the "low centralization" category and 10 in the "high centralization" category.[13] Total expenditures of the units in these two categories are presented in Table 64. The expenditure figures and percentages shown are averages for the total number of units in each category.

The most significant observations from Table 64 are with reference to the costs of instruction and conveyance. The highly centralized units spent approximately 8 per cent less of their budget on instruction and approximately 8 per cent more on conveyance than did the units with low centralization. If the areas were comparable in terms of student population and size and number of school districts included, specific conclusions could

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[13] Units included in the category of "low centralization" were numbers 20, 26, 28, 35, 38, 45, 46, 47, 52, 54, 56, 64, 66; those included as "highly centralized" were numbers 6, 7, 8, 12, 15, 17, 24, 31, 32, 34.

TABLE 64. AVERAGE EXPENDITURES IN A SELECTION OF SCHOOL UNITS WITH "LOW" AND "HIGH" CENTRALIZATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Type of Expenditure	13 "Low Centralization" Units		10 "High Centralization" Units	
	Average Expenditure Per Unit	Per Cent of Total	Average Expenditure Per Unit	Per Cent of Total
	$	%	$	%
Administration	10,097	3.0	10,030	3.8
Instruction	199,175	60.1	137,621	52.1
Plant operation and maintenance	53,406	16.1	45,814	17.3
Auxiliary services	8,158	2.5	7,909	3.0
Conveyance*	2,592	0.8	22,474	8.5
Capital expenditure†	41,663	12.6	20,640	7.8
Debt charges	8,578	2.6	10,721	4.1
Other	7,421	2.2	8,856	3.4
Total	331,087		264,075	

SOURCE: *Financial Statements of Larger Units*, Department of Education.

* Conveyance includes costs of transportation in both operating and non-operating districts, plus costs of board and room where applicable.

† Capital expenditures include costs of conveying equipment.

then be drawn regarding the advisability of conveying students. Since these factors vary, all that can be said is that, where centralization is possible, the cost of closing schools appears to be offset by the saving in costs of instruction.

To identify more precisely the increase in costs due to centralization, the highly centralized units were compared between 1946 and 1951.[14] In these 10 units, 31 per cent of the schools were closed in 1946 and 44 per cent in 1951. As would be expected, all costs increased during this period — a total increase of 56 per cent. The increase in conveyance, however, appears to have permitted the costs of administration, instruction, and plant operation and maintenance to decrease relative to the total expenditures. Table 65 indicates the relative increases in components of expenditure from 1946 to 1951, a period in which 13 per cent more schools were closed.

Total costs in the thirteen units with low centralization increased 76 per cent in the same period of time. The greater increase in costs in units with low centralization than in highly centralized units might indicate that economies were effected by more extensive centralization.

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[14] Three of the 10 units did not operate for the complete year in 1946; therefore, the increase in expenditures from 1946 to 1951, although slightly exaggerated, will be comparable for each item of expenditure.

TABLE 65. PER CENT INCREASE IN EXPENDITURES, 1946 TO 1951, IN TEN SCHOOL UNITS WITH HIGH CENTRALIZATION

Type of Expenditure	1946 Amount	1946 Per Cent of Total	1951 Amount	1951 Per Cent of Total	Per Cent Increase
	$	%	$	%	%
Administration	70,986	4.2	100,309	3.8	41.3
Instruction	969,384	57.3	1,376,210	52.1	41.9
Plant operation and maintenance	296,733	17.5	458,139	17.3	54.4
Conveyance	98,153	5.8	224,742	8.5	128.9
Auxiliary services	29,216	1.7	79,092	3.0	40.7
Capital expenditures	84,655	5.0	206,396	7.8	143.8
Debt charges	110,662	6.5	107,213	4.0	—
Other	31,872	1.9	88,557	3.4	177.0
Total	1,691,647		2,640,759		56.1

SOURCE: *Financial Statements of Larger School Units*, Department of Education.

In the areas of low centralization, the average number of students per unit was almost double the number in the highly centralized units. Consequently, the per student cost was lower in the units with low centralization. Between 1946 and 1951, however, per student costs increased proportionately less in the units with high centralization (Table 66).

In summary, this analysis indicates that highly centralized units spent proportionately less on instruction and an almost equal amount more on conveyance between 1946 and 1951, all costs in the areas with low centralization increased 76 per cent compared to a 56 per cent increase in the highly centralized areas. An analysis of the expenditures of ten units over

TABLE 66. PER STUDENT COST IN UNITS WITH HIGH AND LOW CENTRALIZATION, 1946 AND 1951

Type of Unit	1946	1951	Per Cent Increase
	$	$	%
"Low centralization" units	74.63	139.69	83.1
"High centralization" units	120.16	210.96	75.6

a five-year period indicated that as the number of districts conveying increased, the costs of administration, plant operation and maintenance, and instruction increased less than the total increase in all costs. Per student costs were considerably higher in the areas of high conveyance, but between 1946 and 1951 these costs increased relatively less than did the same costs in areas of low conveyance. Thus, closing of districts and conveying of students appear to provide economies for the school units involved.

Although costs may be reduced by centralizing facilities, at the same time the process of centralization is responsible for a reduction in revenues. Both equalization and building and repair grants decline as the number of operating rooms declines. It would appear that, from the point of view of local administrators, the financial effect of a program of centralization is determined by the relationship between economies on the one hand and loss of grants on the other. Such a relationship is difficult to define because of differences among units in distances for conveyance, numbers of students, quality of school buildings and so forth.

Appendix V compares operating income and expenses for a hypothetical school unit in three different types of circumstances: one in which no schools were closed; one in which 30 schools were closed and the students were conveyed but no extra central facilities were required; and one in which 30 schools were closed and conveyed but which also required the addition of 15 central rooms. Assuming these hypothetical conditions, assuming certain uniform revenues and costs, and assuming the possibility of transporting students from three districts in one conveyance vehicle, the following observations are made:

1) The non-centralized unit would receive the highest total of operating and equalization grants but also would have the highest operating cost. Costs would exceed income by a considerable margin.

2) The unit with 30 districts closed and conveying but with no extra facilities added would receive approximately $42,000 less in equalization grants. By conveying students from three districts in one vehicle, the unit would operate more cheaply than the non-centralized unit. Thus it would achieve a net decrease in the costs of education, if no additional educational features were provided at the central points.

3) The unit with 30 districts closed but which had to provide 15 additional rooms in central locations would receive slightly less in operation and equalization grants than if all districts were operating, but considerably more than if no extra rooms were added. The difference in the latter two is that the unit receives duplicate grants for 15 of the rooms—allowances for conveyance of 30 rooms and grants for operating 15 extra rooms. Costs of conveyance and movement of students from 15 rural schools add considerable costs. This system would operate more cheaply than if all schools were open but not so cheaply as if no extra facilities had to be provided.

Economies can thus be effected through regrouping facilitie The amount of saving is determined by the relationship between the number of schools closed and the capital expenditure required to accommodate the students at central locations. The example cited indicates that if at least a two to one ratio can be maintained between schools closed and extra facilities required, economies can be gained. A widening of the ratio will increase the economic advantages of regrouping.

Equalization of the Costs of Education

If perfect equity in financing education were possible all taxpayers would pay equal taxes for equal services. But if gross inequities in the burden of financing education exist among various areas of the province, citizens in poor areas are penalized financially or are denied equal educational opportunity. A sound system of educational finance must therefore strive to achieve equalization of the costs of education.

Although taxation based on the assessment of real property or a portion of real property is an imperfect criterion of ability to pay, it is the only practical method for the levy of local taxes. The existing concept of equalization provides for the pooling of resources of school districts within units to meet the demands of each and for equalization of minimum expenditures throughout the province by means of equalization grants. This method leaves for local authorities the determination of maximum expenditures. This discussion deals primarily with equalization grants, which for larger units and cities represent the difference between a flat rate on the assessment and a standard cost of operating a room. Except for building and repair grants paid to larger units, other grants are considered to be comparable.

Provincial Equalization Grants

Equalization grants have been paid since 1939, but have become increasingly important since the establishment of larger units in 1944. In 1939-40, equalization grants amounted to approximately 1 per cent of the total grants; by 1953-54 equalization grants had increased to represent 39 per cent of total grants for all schools under the School Act. The importance of this type of grant, however, varies in different types of administration. In larger units in 1953, equalization grants represented approximately 50 per cent of total grants. In non-unit schools equalization grants were about 25 per cent of total grants in 1953, and in the five years prior to 1953 about 15 per cent of total grants.

Three formulas for the computation of equalization grants were described earlier. These formulas may be summarized as follows:

1) *Non-unit rural and village districts:* In 1955 the equalization grant equalled 14 mills on the difference between the actual per room assessment and $130,000 per room to a maximum of $4.90 per day or $980 for a 200-day school year.

2) *Non-unit town and city districts of less than 50 rooms:* The equalization grant equalled 14 mills on the difference between the actual per room assessment and $125,000 per room, to a maximum of $3.50 per room. If there are more than 50 rooms, town and city districts receive grants calculated on the

larger unit formula, although there is no minimum guarantee of $10,000 as there is with larger units.

3) *Larger units:* The equalization grant equalled the amount by which certain basic minimum costs exceed certain revenues. The minimum grant payable is $10,000 per unit. The larger unit formula considers allowances for closed districts as part of total revenue and includes an allowance for costs of conveying students.

All equalization grants as paid at present are based on assessment. To compare equalization grants computed by the foregoing formulas assumes that rural and urban assessments are equitable. If rural and urban assessments are not equitable, then present equalization grants are faulty. But if present assessments accurately reflect ability to pay taxes, some judgments can be made of the operation of present equalization grants.

Under the present equalization formula, a rural district with one operating elementary room and an assessment of $60,000 receives $990. If the same district were included in a larger unit composed of rural districts with similar assessments, it would earn $1,540 for unit equalization. If the same district had an assessment of $130,000 and were not in a unit, it would receive no equalization grant, but as part of a unit it would earn $490. Actually, the average assessment per room in all larger units is considerably higher than the maximum allowed non-unit districts.

The main difference between unit and non-unit equalization is the addition of a cost factor to the unit equalization formula. In non-unit schools cost is not considered but rather a maximum assessment. The effect of the cost factor may be illustrated thus. If a non-unit village school had four rooms, two each for high school and elementary classes, and an assessment of $60,000 per room, it would receive an annual equalization grant of $3,920. If the same district were included in a unit composed of districts with similar assessments the equalization grant would be $4,680.

An additional feature which discriminates between unit and non-unit equalization is the $10,000 minimum that larger units receive. In 1954, 12 of the 56 units received the flat minimum. Thus, if all other types of grants are equitably provided, equalization grants do not provide equity for ratepayers in differing types of administration but are weighted in favour of larger units.[13] Furthermore, since there are real questions as to inequalities in rural-urban assessments, the effectiveness of equalization grants in levelling rural-urban disparities must be questioned.

Although inequities in the role of equalization grants can be demonstrated in different administrations, it might be assumed that equalization grants provide equity within any one type of administration, e.g., within larger school units. Table 67 compares mill rates in larger units in 1952 and indicates that despite equalization grants there is an inverse relationship between tax rates and ability to pay taxes. The units with the lowest assessments carry the highest mill rates.

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[13] In part, this disparity between units and non-units is justified by the objective of better facilities and higher standards embodied in the larger unit form of administration.

TABLE 67. RELATIONSHIP OF AVERAGE TAX RATE TO AVERAGE ASSESSMENT IN LARGER UNITS, 1952

Assessment Category	Average Assessment Per Unit	Average Mill Rate
	$000's	
$4-$7 million	5,346	25.5
$7.1-$10 million	8,717	23.1
$10.1-$13 million	9,779	22.1
$13.1-$16 million	13,581	22.0
$16.1-$19 million	17,870	18.0
$19.1-$22 million	20,890	15.5

SOURCE: Data from financial statements of larger school units, Department of Education.

A comparison of mill rates and assessment per capita shows a similar trend. It is therefore clear that present equalization grants do not treat all districts comparably, nor do they provide complete equity. Although these regressive discrepancies are still apparent, however, it must be acknowledged that without present equalization grants the inequity would be much greater than it appears here.

A study of educational financing in Saskatchewan by M. P. Toombs also concluded that equalization of the burden of financing education has not been achieved and proposed an alternative method for computing equalization grants.[16] This analysis was based on acceptance of the following principles which must be met if educational opportunity and local tax burdens are to be equalized:

1) Development of larger units;

2) The development of a valid method of measuring educational load so that it can be used to determine the need for financial support and the ability to provide it;

3) The definition of a minimum foundation program in education;

4) The development of an objective method of distributing provincial aid.

The need for development of larger units in all areas was accepted on the understanding that this type of organization would provide co-ordinated administration over a large area and equality of financial burden in a larger area.

In order to ascertain costs of education under widely varying circumstances, Toombs submitted that a valid measure of educational load must meet the following conditions:

1) Accord like treatment to schools of equal size;

2) Consider sparsity of population;

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[16] M. P. Toombs, "A Study of Educational Financing in Saskatchewan," unpublished manuscript, Saskatoon, 1954.

3) Permit a cost differential in the operation of elementary and high school rooms.

The common measurements of classrooms-in-operation and pupils-in-attendance were rejected in favour of a weighted pupil unit, which unlike either of the two other measures attempts to take account of size of school and also sparsity of population. With this unit as a measurement of load, the current expenditure pattern of districts and units and the assessment per weighted pupil unit were found to be widely divergent.

Once a minimum program is established and its cost to the "wealthiest" larger unit ascertained, a basic levy is calculated for provision of the program in the selected unit. The plan of equalization then developed calls for grants equal to the difference between the cost of providing the minimum service (with an elementary - secondary school differential) and the proceeds of a uniform tax levy (equal to the levy in the wealthiest unit) on all ratepayers. The proposed equalization grant makes no allowance for non-instructional costs, such as dormitories, conveyance, fees, and high school allowances. To compensate for the difference in costs of providing these services, Toombs suggested that separate equalization grants calculated on a weighted pupil basis be paid directly for these purposes.

On the basis of Toombs' computation, total grants provided by the province would have to be considerably increased. In 1950, the required grants should have been approximately double those provided. If the cost of the program in 1953 was comparable to that of 1950, total grants actually paid approached the required amount, although as has been demonstrated, inequities still persisted in the distribution of the total.

The calculation of equalization grants on a weighted pupil basis, which corrects for school size, population sparsity, and an elementary-secondary school cost differential, certainly appears to be a valid approach to provide equity in financing. Unless assessments are adequate, however, even this system fails to correct basic difficulties.

While the advantages of the Toombs proposal appear to be substantial, certain problems are implicit in any major change in the method of apportioning provincial finances. Presumably under the plan all operating or basic grants would be supplanted by the new equalization grants. If any districts received less in total grants than before, dissatisfaction would follow. Because of the traditional character of many grants and because of the sweeping revision required in provincial administration of grants, the change to a new system of apportionment should be accomplished gradually.

Federal Equalization

Even if perfect equity were attained in the per ratepayer cost of education and in the opportunities for education within Saskatchewan, the quality and quantity of educational services would still be limited by the total amount of the province's tax resources. There is wide disparity among provinces in their taxpaying ability. This disparity is reflected not only in substantial variations in existing levels of educational expenditure per pupil, but also in each province's potential ability to provide educational services.[17] Thus, if equal educational opportunity is a valid objective in education, the financial participation of the Federal Government is required.

The Canadian School Trustees' Association, in its report, recognizes that some measure of redistribution of federal funds has been achieved under the Dominion-Provincial Tax Agreements.[18] It also recognizes the extent of federal aid to vocational and other special educational programs. Its analysis demonstrates, however, that the Federal Government's contribution is neither large enough, nor related sufficiently to need, to raise expenditures for education in provinces of low taxpaying ability to an acceptable Canadian standard. One of its central recommendations, therefore, is:

> That to assist in financing elementary and secondary education the Federal Government be requested to give aid to the extent of $150 million per annum at the present time, one-third of this aid to be on a 'per pupil' basis and two-thirds as equalization grants to provinces with low taxpaying ability, the latter payments to be proportional to provincial needs.[19]

The report concludes by saying:

> The tax base for school revenues should be broadened for all provinces. Federal assistance for education on a 'per pupil' basis would widen the field of support for Canada's most important general social service, public education. Provinces with low taxpaying ability are unable at present to provide needed types of schools and schooling and are spending only 30, 40, or 50 per cent as much money on the education of each of their children as are more fortunate provinces. Equalization grants could raise the level of education in all provinces to acceptable levels.
>
> Federal aid for education is only an extension of the general principle recognized in Dominion Government finance, namely, compulsory contributions to the federal treasury according to taxpaying ability and assistance in return according to provincial needs.[20]

* * *

In summary, despite present equalization grants, the burden of financing education still falls inequitably on ratepayers in the province. Equalization grants as provided at present are inequitable among various types of administration. To remove these inequities for all schools, the same type of administration would have to be assumed by all schools and, moreover, comparable equalization formulas would have to be applied for all purposes.

In order to achieve equalization of the burden of financing education for all ratepayers, assessments must accurately reflect ability to pay. Although both rural and urban assessments may be equitable within themselves, the equity in the relationship of rural to urban assessments is questionable.

If assessments can be assumed to be a valid measure of ability to pay and if the agricultural population is distributed in accordance with the production base, equity can be attained by use of a weighted pupil average and equalization grants paid as the difference between a flat levy (the amount required to finance the minimum program in the wealthiest unit in the province) and the costs of maintaining a minimum service. For effective operation of this proposal, all operational grants as paid at present should be discontinued, and all grants should be lumped into the equalization grant paid according to this formula. The minimum equalization grant as now provided would likewise be discontinued.

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[17] While any thorough analysis of educational finance in other provinces is beyond the scope of this report, these facts are fully documented in a recent study by the Canadian School Trustees' Association. See *School Finance in Canada*, Canadian School Trustees' Association, School Finance Research Committee, Dr. M. E. La Zerte, Research Director, Hamly Press, Ltd., Edmonton, 1955.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 220.

[19] *Ibid.*, p. 220.

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 221.

While this system involving a flat mill rate across the province would appear to minimize local responsibility for educational financing, this procedure for establishing equalization grants is not unlike the present system. A minimum cost is assumed, and anything which is required or desired above that level is the responsibility of the local administration.

Even if equity in educational financing is achieved within the province, there still remains the question of interprovincial inequities. Increased federal aid, both to broaden the general tax base for education and to augment the resources of provinces with low taxpaying ability, is required to equalize educational costs and opportunities across Canada.

SUMMARY

Costs of Education

Education as a public expenditure in the Province of Saskatchewan quadrupled in the past 12 years and reached a high of $40 million in 1953. Per capita costs of education have increased as population has declined, but as total personal income has risen the cost of education as a proportion of income has remained relatively stable in the past decade.

Provincial disbursements for education have increased from a 1941-42—1945-46 average of $4.5 million to $14.1 million in 1953-54. Although school grants have nearly tripled since 1941-42, grants as a proportion of government disbursements have declined from the 1941-45 average. Other grants-in-aid and school loans have become increased proportions of provincial disbursements for education. As a proportion of net disbursements of the provincial treasury, expenditures for education have declined.

In rural municipalities the levy for education has become a progressively higher proportion of net farm income since 1951 and in 1954 was a higher proportion than at any time since the 1930's.

Revenues for Education

Education is financed largely by local taxes, government grants, loans and debentures. Through the years 1946 to 1953, non-operating receipts, particularly loans, have been providing an ever increasing proportion of total receipts. At the same time, taxes have been declining in relative importance. In larger units the increase in the use of loans and in city elementary districts the increase in the use of debentures have been most marked. The relative increase in non-operating receipts represents the assumption of increased fixed costs which restrict the flexibility of educational spending.

Although non-operating receipts have increased consistently more than operating receipts, the educational levy has more than doubled since 1945 and has increased slightly more, proportionately, than the total municipal levy. The increase in the education levy has been greatest in towns and villages, next greatest in rural municipalities, and least in cities. Alterations in municipal assessments have meant that increases in the levy have not been accompanied by comparable increases in tax rates. The effect of increased levies for education in conjunction with revised assessments has been an increase of more than 100 per cent in rural tax rates for education between 1946 and 1953, an increase of 94 per cent in tax rates in villages, an increase of 80 per cent in tax rates in towns, and an increase of 51 per cent in tax rates in cities. Arrears in education taxes in 1952 and 1953 amounted to approximately 47 per cent of each year's levy. Among larger units, those with low assessment suffer most critically from serious tax arrears.

Loans and debentures have assumed greater importance in school financing in recent years. In 1946 all school districts borrowed 10 per cent of total receipts, but in 1953 they borrowed 31 per cent of total receipts. Large units and city elementary districts were the largest borrowers. Since larger units have been able to use loans from the Provincial Government until they are permanently established, they have not incurred abnormal costs for financing, but the use of increasing amounts of borrowed money at normal interest rates may create inflexibility in the future financing of education.

School grants have declined in importance in the financing of education from 1941 to 1953. In 1941, school grants provided 24 per cent of total receipts; in 1953 they provided approximately 18 per cent of total receipts. The amounts of all types have increased, but equalization grants and special building and equipment grants have increased relatively more than all others until in 1953 they represented 57 per cent of total grants.

Expenditures for Education

Expenditures for administration, maintenance, and operation of all school districts increased from $11.5 million in 1941-42 to $37.9 million in 1953-54. Non-operating expenditures including capital expenditures from operating receipts increased considerably more than operating costs. Non-unit rural and village districts spend proportionately more on conveyance than any other type of school administration, and larger units and city elementary districts have undertaken high capital expenditures.

Capital expenditures are financed not only from operating receipts but through debentures as well. Although capital expenditures as a proportion of operating receipts have been increasing, the increases have not kept pace with total capital requirements. Non-unit districts, particularly village and city elementary districts, have increasingly resorted to debentures to finance their capital needs.

Since capital expenditures have been increasing as a proportion of operating receipts, since special building and equipment grants have increased substantially, and since debenture financing has increased markedly, it is clear that the centralization and expansion of school facilities are creating difficult costs for education.

Special Aspects of Financing

Economics of Regrouping. As school facilities are centralized, the main increases in expenditures are associated with conveyance and capital expenditures. At the same time, savings are made in the costs of instruction and administration. Per student costs are considerably higher in sparsely settled units, where centralization is more extensive. Between 1946 and 1951, however, per student costs increased more in units with low centralization than in highly centralized units. This would indicate that economies can be effected through regrouping.

Although centralization of facilities can effect economies, revenues decline as centralization proceeds. Operation, equalization, and special building and equipment grants decrease as the number of schools declines.

The net effect on financing of regrouping is therefore determined by the relationship between savings on the one hand and reduced revenues on the other. The amount of savings is determined by the relationship between the number of rooms closed and the capital expenditures required to accommodate the students at the central location. If two districts can be closed and conveyed for every one room required in a central location, economies can result. A widening of the ratio between schools closed and extra facilities required will increase the economic advantages of regrouping.

Equalization of the Costs of Education. If perfect equity were possible, all taxpayers would pay equal taxes for equal services. Larger units of administration and equalization grants are means to eliminate inequities within large areas. Inequities in tax loads still exist, however, both between and within various types of school administration. Taxpayers in low assessed larger units still pay considerably higher taxes than those in higher assessed units, although without present equalization grants the discrepancy would be much greater.

To equalize the burden of financing education, all schools should be administered by a common type of administration, and one equalization formula should apply to all schools. If assessments are a valid measure of ability to pay taxes, a single suggested formula for all grants would equalize the burden of financing education. This formula is based on a weighted pupil average which recognizes school size, population sparsity, and an elementary-secondary school cost differential. The formula provides for the payment of the difference between the cost of a minimum program and the flat levy required to support the minimum program in the wealthiest unit.

On a national scale, a program of increased federal aid to education which embodies an equalization formula is necessary to augment the resources of provinces with low taxpaying ability.

CHAPTER VII

Staffing Saskatchewan Schools

Nothing so determines the character of an educational system as the quality of its teachers. Although functional school buildings, adequate equipment, rich curricula, and sound financing and organization can improve education, the quality of education depends basically on the number and capabilities of teachers. In the words of Dr. J. W. Tait, Director of Teacher Training for the Province of Saskatchewan, schools, equipment, and curricula are important but not so important "as the selection and training of teachers who can guide the development of children with understanding, culture, and vision and who can make adequate use of buildings, equipment, and curricula when they are provided."[1] On the knowledge, technical skills, and general perspectives that teachers impart today largely depends the ability of the citizens of tomorrow to build an economically secure and culturally rich society. Although the professional training which teachers receive is all-important in their attainment of the necessary knowledge and teaching skills, it is not the purpose of this report to analyse the content of teacher training courses. Rather, it is to review the status of teacher supply and, if the supply is inadequate, to consider means of increasing the number of trained teachers available to staff Saskatchewan classrooms.

HISTORY OF TEACHER SUPPLY IN SASKATCHEWAN

Through the years, the supply of teachers in Saskatchewan has fluctuated with changes in population, economic conditions, and teacher training facilities. In the early years of settlement the pioneers faced a shortage of teachers. "In 1886, there were in the Territories 65 Protestant schools employing 67 teachers and having an enrolment of 2,041 pupils; and 12 Roman Catholic schools employing 17 teachers with 512 students enrolled."[2] Legislation was therefore passed in 1887 to permit issuance to non-trained personnel of various types of teacher certificates valid for a limited period of time or as long as the persons certified tried to improve their qualifications. By 1893, non-professional certificates were invalidated as teachers' licences.

At the same time, more than ten years before the establishment of the province, teacher training facilities were established. By 1890, four union schools — secondary schools with enrolment from several school districts—were established, each containing a normal school department. These normal school departments were located at Regina, Moose Jaw, Moosomin, and Prince Albert. Because the normal school departments tended to outweigh the general secondary education offered by the union schools, the Board of Education decided in

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[1] Brief to the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.

[2] James D. Denny, *The Organization of Public Education in Saskatchewan*. The Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, 1929, p. 67.

1890 that no union school should provide normal school training unless specifically authorized. The Regina and Moosomin union schools were then authorized to provide normal school training. In 1893 the first regular normal school was established in Regina, and by 1929 three normal schools were in operation—at Regina, Saskatoon, and Moose Jaw.

In the years from 1906 to 1927, 18,431 students were enrolled in Saskatchewan normal schools of whom 5,315 had received their primary and secondary education outside the province. The majority were from Manitoba and Ontario and the rest mainly from Nova Scotia, the United States, and Great Britain.[3] The province sought to attract not only student teachers from outside the province but trained teachers as well. Between 1906 and 1926 the province issued 11,153 certificates to teachers trained outside the province—largely in other provinces of Canada and in Great Britain. As a result of the increase in the number of students trained in Saskatchewan and of the importation of trained teachers, by 1927 the supply of teachers exceeded the demand. In 1927, the Registrar of the Department of Education reported that "fewer teachers are now coming to the province from other provinces and the teaching positions are being filled more and more by graduates of our own Normal Schools . . . out of 1,970 new licences to teach issued by the Department in 1927, 201 were granted to teachers from outside the province."[4]

With the widespread unemployment of the depression years of the 1930's, an adequate supply of teachers was available. The outbreak of World War II diverted manpower to the war effort, and teachers, like others, entered the armed services or industrial work. The shortage of teachers occasioned by the war continued in the postwar years, for many former teachers undertook other types of employment.

In order to staff the classrooms, the Department of Education relaxed standards for qualification as a teacher and in 1942 instituted short training courses for teachers. Students were admitted to normal schools with less than full requirements for entrance; credits were awarded for classes to induce teachers in training to enter teaching before completion of the required training; and regulations were eased to facilitate teaching by those with inferior certificates.

By 1949 short courses were abandoned as detrimental to the level of the teaching profession. Not only were teachers with inferior qualifications being admitted to teaching, but the lowering of standards increased the difficulties of attracting superior candidates into the profession, Other measures were undertaken to increase the recruitment of teachers, and financial aid to teachers was made available through a provincial revolving loan fund established in 1949. In addition to these measures to increase recruitment and provide aid for teacher training, the province has imported a number of trained teachers from abroad. For the 1954-55 school year, 135 teachers for Saskatchewan schools were recruited in Great Britain. Between January and June, 1954, 102 additional teachers trained outside

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[3] *Ibid.*, p. 77.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 75.

Saskatchewan were certified for teaching in the province. Despite these measures to staff Saskatchewan's classrooms, however, the teacher shortage that became acute in the postwar years has not been overcome.

The determination of whether a teacher shortage exists and the extent of that shortage depends on many factors—number of students, number of classrooms, qualifications of teachers, recruitment and retention of teachers. Table 10 (Chapter III) shows the total number of teaching positions and the proportion filled by unqualified personnel in the years 1945-46 to 1953-54. In 1948-49, 20 per cent of all positions were filled by personnel with less than the minimum qualifications. Although the proportion of unqualified personnel has been reduced by more than half in the years from 1949 to 1954, in 1954, 765 persons holding teaching positions (8.7 per cent of the teaching force) were unqualified. Another measure of the shortage of qualified teachers is the number of study supervisors employed in rural classrooms. Although the number of study supervisors has decreased, 524 were still employed in 1954.[5] That so many study supervisors are necessary despite the continued closing of rural schools (306 in 1954) and despite the importation of teachers from abroad shows that the shortage of qualified teachers is serious.

WORLD-WIDE SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS

The present shortage of teachers is not unique to the province of Saskatchewan. It is a world-wide problem, although figures are presented here only for the United States and Canada. In 1952 the United States Commissioner of Education stated that the school systems in the United States were 52,000 teachers short of meeting even minimum standards and an additional 120,000 teachers short of meeting reasonably desirable standards.[6] In 1954, it was estimated that 150,000 new teachers would be needed each year for the next ten years in the United States.[7] In Canada in 1952-53 there were approximately 92,000 classrooms in the ten provincial public school systems in which 5,150 persons who had no professional training were employed as teachers; 3,700 more had training below the prescribed minimum for their respective provinces.[8] The shortage would undoubtedly be much greater than the 8,850 thus computed if were added the teachers who obtained certificates on reduced requirements, the married teachers who returned to teaching primarily because of the great need for teachers, and the older teachers eligible for retirement.

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[5] The number of study supervisors has since been reduced further. In the spring term of 1955, 250 were in service; in the fall of 1955, 133 remained.

[6] F. S. Rivers and R. W. B. Jackson, "Teacher Supply in Canada," *Canadian Education*, June, 1953, p. 3.

[7] Earl W. Anderson, "Teaching is an Attractive Career," *School Life*, November, 1954, p. 31.

[8] *School Finance in Canada*, Canadian School Trustees' Association School Finance Research Committee, M. E. LaZerte, Research Director, Hamly Press, Ltd., Edmonton, 1955, p. 39.

THE TEACHER SHORTAGE IN SASKATCHEWAN

The present shortage of teachers in Saskatchewan may be explained partly in terms of the birth rates during the depression and postwar years, in terms of the loss of trained teachers, and in terms of the shortage of recruits to the profession.

Birth Rates

Reviewing teacher supply in Canada, two authorities on education attribute the shortage of teachers in the main to the differential in birth rates between 1930-40 and 1945-55.[9] Almost twice as many children were born each year in the postwar period as during the depression years. "The teachers entering training schools today come from the limited supply of children born during the 'hungry thirties,' the elementary school pupils of the immediate future come from the bumper crop of babies of the boom years following the Second World War."[10] In addition, all professions and vocations are competing for personnel among the young people of the low birth rate era.

While this phenomenon has created a severe problem in the United States and in many provinces of Canada, Saskatchewan's age distribution during these two periods is fairly even. The age group from which the new teacher candidates must be drawn—those born during the depression years—did not decline so sharply in Saskatchewan as in Quebec and Ontario. Figure 23 shows for Saskatchewan "little evidence of the 'hollow' so pronounced in the distribution for the whole of Canada."[11] In Canada in 1951 the ratio of 15-19 year olds to 0-4 year olds was 1:1.6. Among the provinces Saskatchewan had the lowest ratio—1:1.4, followed by Manitoba and Alberta each with 1:1.6. Although the age distribution of population may explain in large measure the shortage of teachers in the nation as a whole, it is doubtful if the shortage in Saskatchewan can be explained on this ground.

Loss of Trained Teachers

The results of two surveys of teachers showed that about 10 per cent of the trained teachers withdraw from teaching each year.[12] The destination of these teachers, in order of the number affected, is as follows: (1) marriage or return to domestic duties, (2) other vocations, (3) teaching in other locations, and (4) retirement or health care.

Of 2,757 teachers questioned in a 1953 survey as to their employment intentions for the following year,[13] 10 per cent intended to leave teaching entirely or leave teaching in Saskatchewan. More than half or 52 per cent of those leaving were leaving because of marriage; 18 per cent intended to enter other vocations; 7.7 per cent

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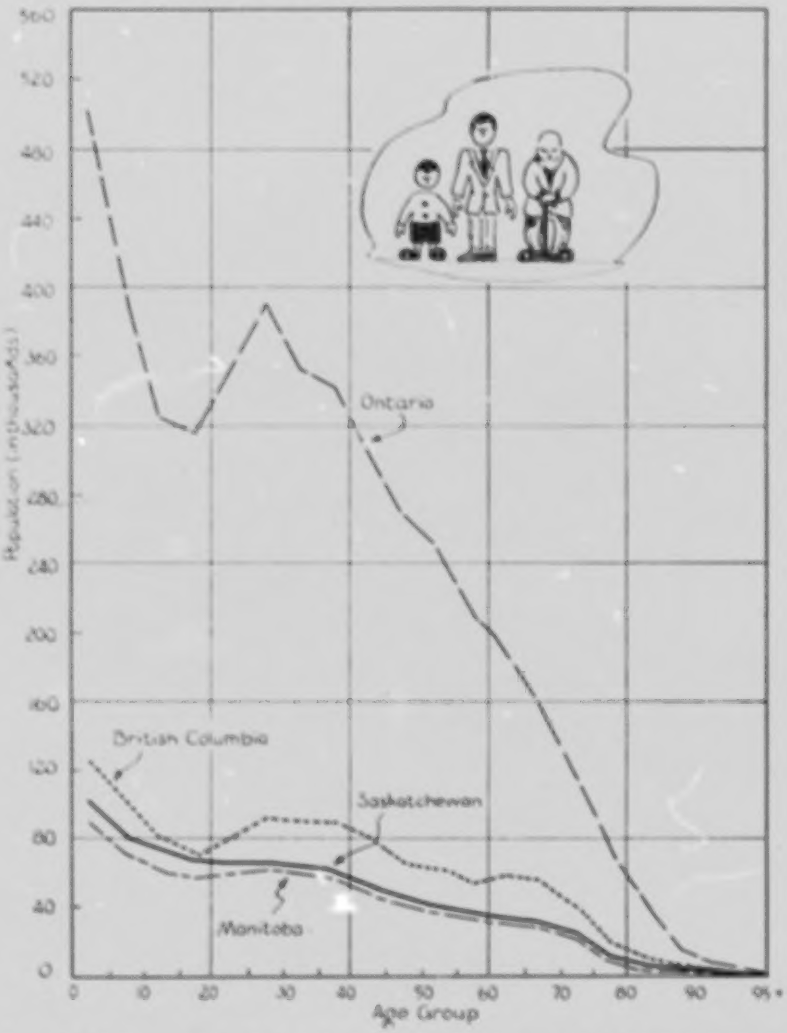
[9] F. S. Rivers and R. W. B. Jackson, *op. cit.*, p. 3.
[10] *Ibid.*, p. 4.
[11] *Ibid.*, pp. 6, 7.
[12] In addition, about one to two per cent withdraw to improve their qualifications. Their loss to the profession may be temporary or permanent.
[13] Survey conducted by Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, 1953.

FIGURE 23. AGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION, ONTARIO, BRITISH COLUMBIA, MANITOBA AND SASKATCHEWAN, 1951



SOURCE: F. E. Rivers and R. W. B. Jackson, "Teacher Supply in Canada," *Canadian Education*, June, 1953.

intended to teach elsewhere,[14] and 7.1 per cent planned to retire or leave teaching for health reasons (Table 68). Thus, marriage, retirement, and health accounted for about 60 per cent of the anticipated loss of trained teachers that year, and transfer to other vocations and locations accounted for about 26 per cent of the anticipated loss.

Although this survey was limited to one year and expectations of employment, these findings were corroborated in a survey of the employment status of graduates of Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges over the five-year period from 1949 to 1954.[15] Marriage, retirement, and health accounted for more than 60 per cent of withdrawals, and transfer to other vocations and locations accounted for slightly more than 30 per cent of withdrawals in the five-year period studied (Table 69).

Shortage of Recruits

To what extent is the annual loss of trained teachers made up by new recruits to the profession? Table 70 shows the net decline in enrolment in teacher training institutions since 1950, although the enrolment has been increasing annually since 1952. With an annual loss of 10 per cent of the trained teachers, one might have expected that there would be an upward trend in the number of recruits.

The annual graduating class of approximately 600 from Teachers College, of whom 75 per cent are women, represents about 7 per cent of the total teaching force of 8,700 in the province. This percentage is approximately sufficient to offset the annual loss of 7 per cent of the teachers who leave for marriage or retirement but not sufficient to compensate for the additional 3 per cent who leave for other

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[14] Approximately 300 teachers per year request that transcripts of their records be sent to other provinces or countries. The majority of those who request that their transcripts be sent elsewhere are those who have first-class certificates. Of the 314 teachers who requested that their transcripts be sent elsewhere in 1952, 190 had first-class certificates, while in 1954, 135 of the 231 requesting the sending of their transcripts had similar qualifications. The destination of the transcripts for the two years was as follows:

	1952	1954		1952	1954
Alta.	143	79	U.S.A.	32	30
B.C.	82	78	N.W.T.	6	
Man.	28	19	Others	3	1
Ont.	20	24			
				314	231

When a qualified teacher leaves the province for teaching in another location, the province loses not only his services but also its investment in his training. The Teachers' Federation calculated that the training of the 1952 emigrants cost the province $219,200. When the cost of preparing replacements is added, it is clear that the emigration of teachers represents considerable economic as well as educational loss.

[15] The survey was conducted by a questionnaire prepared by the Commission and mailed by the Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation to the graduates of the 1948 summer course and the 1948-49 regular session of the Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges (Normal Schools). Of the 1,261 teachers to whom the questionnaire was sent, teaching status was established for 972, 436 of whom were still teaching. Only 485 questionnaires were completed in detail for analytical use.

TABLE 68. ANTICIPATED EMPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS PLANNING TO LEAVE THE PROFESSION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1953

Reason for Leaving	Number	Per Cent of Total
Marriage:		
To marry	65	20.1
To return to household	103	31.9
To teach elsewhere	25	7.7
Other vocations:		
To armed forces	7	2.2
To other occupations	51	15.8
To improve qualifications	49	15.2
Retirement	18	5.6
Illness	5	1.5
Total	323	100.0

SOURCE: Survey conducted by Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, 1953.

TABLE 69. WITHDRAWAL OF TEACHERS FROM THE PROFESSION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1949-1954

Reason for Leaving	Number	Per Cent of Total Leaving
Marriage	147	56.8
Low salary	36	13.9
Attraction to other fields	34	13.1
Poor facilities	9	3.5
Dislike of teaching	1	0.3
To improve qualifications	15	5.8
Health reasons	17	6.6
Total	259	100.0

SOURCE: Commission questionnaire returned by graduates of the 1948 summer course and the 1948-49 regular session of the Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges.

TABLE 70. ENROLMENT FOR TEACHER TRAINING, SASKATCHEWAN, 1944-1955*

Year	Enrolment in Teachers Colleges†				Enromlent in College of Education	
	Saskatoon	Moose Jaw	Regina	Total	Total Enrolment	Graduating Class
1944	570	324	471	1,365	—	—
1945	459	302	209	970	—	—
1946	662	642	—	1,304	—	—
1947	402	389	—	791	—	—
1948	669	595	—	1,264	—	—
1949	810	668	—	1,478	—	—
1950	873	572	—	1,445	—	—
1951	427	293	—	720	259	95
1952	334	232	—	566	198	89
1953	331	246	—	577	161	52
1954	354	232	—	586	201	51
1955	402	267	—	669	242	—
1956	465	310	—	775	—	—

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Data are for the school year ending June 30.

† During the period 1944 to 1951 many of those who enrolled took only a short teacher training course.

vocations and locations. Although Saskatchewan Teachers College has continued to recruit about 20 per cent of the high school graduates each year—considerably more than the national average—these graduates do not offset the annual loss of trained teachers.

Nor has immigration of teachers to the province been sufficient to offset the loss. In the three years prior to 1954, fewer than 25 teachers immigrated to the province annually. In 1954, in response to the recruitment program in Great Britain and the immigration of teachers from other places, 237 teachers immigrated, but the exact percentage of immigrating teachers who remain is not known. Despite energetic efforts to enroll students in teacher training institutions and to recruit teachers abroad, Saskatchewan is still suffering from a shortage of recruits in relation to its annual loss of trained teachers.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE TEACHER SHORTAGE

The Commission undertook to ascertain the factors contributing to the teacher shortage through its questionnaire described in footnote 15 above. In the five-year period since completion of their training, 259 teachers or 47.4 per cent of those who replied to the questionnaire had withdrawn from teaching. The great majority had withdrawn from teaching for obvious reasons—marriage, retirement, and ill health. The reasons for the withdrawal of others, as shown in Table 69, reflect factors contributing to the shortage of teachers: 13.9 per cent of those who withdrew left because of low salaries, 13.1 per cent because of the attraction of other fields of work, 3.5 per cent because of poor facilities for teaching, and 0.3 per cent because of dislike of teaching. Aside from marriage, retirement, and health, the main factors contributing to the loss of teachers were the low salaries in teaching and better opportunities in other fields of work.

The teachers in this survey were also asked to list in order of importance the factors (exclusive of marriage, retirement, and health) which in their opinion were responsible for the shortage of teachers. In tabulating their replies ratings were derived by assigning 8 points to the factor listed as most important, 7 points to the factor considered second in importance, and so forth. The factors, in order of their importance, are presented in Table 71.

Presumably, teachers will always be lost from the profession because of marriage, retirement, and health. With respect to other factors contributing to the shortage of teachers, the teachers questioned considered salary the most important factor. Conditions of employment—accom-

TABLE 71. FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS IN SASKATCHEWAN

Factor	Ratio Value*
Inadequate salaries	2,960
Inadequate living accommodation	2,375
Isolation	2,339
Inadequate equipment and facilities	1,982
Lack of social life	1,934
Distance from school	1,606
Over-enrolment	1,590
Under-enrolment	796

SOURCE: Commission questionnaire returned by graduates of the 1948 summer course and the 1948-49 regular session of the Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges.

* Ratio value calculated on the basis of 8 points for Choice No. 1, 7 for Choice No. 2, and so forth.

modation, isolation and lack of social life, facilities and equipment, and pupil enrolment—are next in importance. And, although not listed by the teachers themselves, the background of teachers—their origin in urban or rural communities and their years of experience—may be factors affecting the withdrawal of teachers.

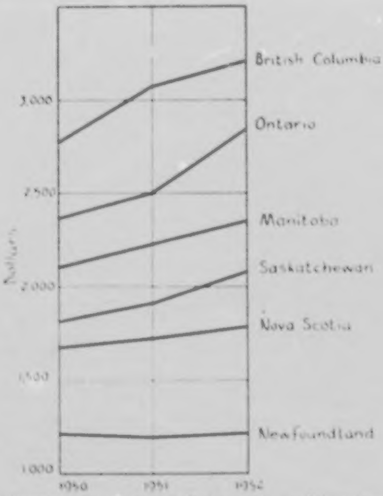
Teachers' Salaries

Since low salaries were cited as the reason next in importance to marriage for withdrawal from the profession and since teachers consider low salaries the most important factor contributing to the shortage of teachers, teachers' salaries are analysed in three ways: (1) salaries in Saskatchewan are compared with salaries in other provinces, (2) salaries in teaching are compared with salaries in other occupations, and (3) an internal analysis of teachers' salaries in Saskatchewan is presented.

Salaries in Saskatchewan and Other Provinces

An interprovincial comparison of salaries is important to determine whether Saskatchewan teachers' salaries are in line with salary levels in the rest of the nation. Furthermore, because a number of graduates of Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges have emigrated to Alberta and British Columbia, a comparison of salary schedules in the western provinces is pertinent to the question of the loss of trained teachers from Saskatchewan. Figure 24 shows the average annual salary of teachers in Saskatchewan and five other provinces in the years 1950, 1951, and 1952. Although Figure 24 shows that teachers in Saskatchewan have received a lower average annual salary than teachers in some other provinces, the comparison is not so unfavourable to Saskatchewan as may appear. If, as in Saskatchewan, a differential exists in other provinces between rural and urban teachers' salaries, the greater proportion of rural teachers in Saskatchewan than in Ontario, Manitoba, and British Columbia explains the lower average annual salary in Saskatchewan.

FIGURE 24. AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN ALL SCHOOLS IN SIX PROVINCES, 1950-1952

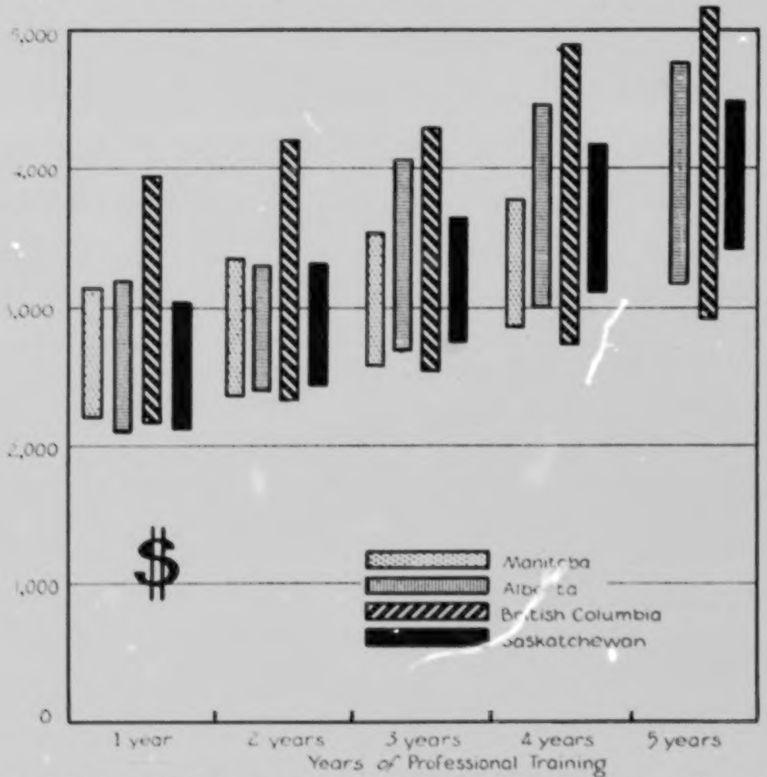


SOURCE: *Teachers' Salaries and Qualifications in Nine Provinces, 1952-1953*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

Recent adjustment's in teachers' salaries in Saskatchewan have narrowed the differential between salaries in Saskatchewan and the other western provinces. Figure 25 compares the salary range in 1954-55 for various types of certification in a few school districts of each of the four provinces. From Figure 25 it is clear that the average minimum of the salary ranges in Saskatchewan is higher than the minimum of the ranges in the other provinces for teachers with more than one year of training. But, in general, the maximum of the range in Saskatchewan is not so high as in other provinces. For example, the maximum of the ranges for the three higher classifications in Alberta is about $300 higher than the maximum of the range in the same classifications in Saskatchewan. The maximum of the range in British Columbia for the same classifications exceeds the maximum in Saskatchewan by about $600.

If salary schedules were the main determinant of teacher supply, it might be expected that Alberta would not suffer from a shortage

FIGURE 25. COMPARISON OF AVERAGE SALARY RANGES FOR VARIOUS TYPES OF CERTIFICATION IN A SAMPLE OF UNITS (DISTRICTS) IN THE FOUR WESTERN PROVINCES, 1954-55



SOURCE: *Salary Bulletin No. 3*, Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, October, 1954. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

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of teachers. Recent emergency measures in Alberta to increase the supply of teachers, however, indicate that the province is facing a serious shortage of teachers despite its higher maximum of salary ranges. Although Alberta has for some years had a two-year training program, in 1954 it lowered teacher training standards and instituted a short-term training program. This emergency measure may indicate that salaries are not the controlling factor in determining teacher supply, or it may indicate that employment opportunities in a buoyant economy are claiming candidates who might otherwise enter the teaching profession.

Salaries in Teaching and Other Occupations

Table 72 compares average weekly salaries of teachers in larger school units and non-unit areas (rural, villages, and towns) with average weekly wages in other occupations. Teachers' salaries are compared with wages of industrial workers and earnings of general duty nurses in the province.

Although average wages for industry include wages for many highly skilled jobs attainable only after years of experience, many jobs in industry are routine and require less ability and initiative than teaching. Similarly, general duty nurses differ from teachers in that they work under much closer supervision than teachers. The responsibility that must be assumed by the general duty nurse, working under supervising nurses and physicians, is much less than that of a rural teacher, often working alone and exercising great discretion and initiative in the school program. Despite limitations on the comparability of salaries in teaching, industry, and nursing, it is significant that teachers' salaries were lower than wages of industrial workers or general duty nurses in the years 1950 - 1953. Average wages for every classification of industrial work, except "service," were higher than teachers' salaries, and general duty nurses also receive higher earnings than teachers. Nevertheless, since 1951 the differential between average industrial wages

TABLE 72. COMPARISON OF WEEKLY SALARIES OF TEACHERS, NURSES, AND INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYEES, 1949-1953

Type of Employment	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953
	Dollars				
Saskatchewan industry	41.50	42.86	46.68	50.90	54.54
General duty nurses	36.48	37.13	39.35	45.86	49.00
Larger unit teachers	26.92	29.25	30.00	39.50	45.84
Non-unit teachers	27.57	30.86	34.00	40.32	44.84

SOURCE: Data on salaries in industry is from *Employment and Payrolls*, August, 1954, Dominion Bureau of Statistics; data on nurses' salaries from the Saskatchewan Department of Public Health, based on a representative sample of hospitals; and data on teachers' salaries from a questionnaire survey of a sample of Saskatchewan teachers.

and average nurses' salaries on the one hand and average teachers' salaries on the other has been decreasing.

Internal Salary Analysis

The analysis of teachers' salaries within the province is concerned with two questions that may affect the shortage of teachers in various areas: (1) inequalities in salaries for the same qualifications among various school units of the province, and (2) rural-urban inequalities.

If salaries are the main explanation for the withdrawal of teachers, it would be expected that higher salaries in one area of the province would attract teachers from areas of lower salary. Table 73 presents the relationship between the proportion of unqualified teachers (study supervisors and permit teachers) and salary schedules in the lowest level of certification for a selected sample of larger school units in 1951-52 and 1953-54.

In 1951-52, little correlation existed between salary schedules and the proportion of staff who were unqualified. The school unit with the third highest salary schedule (No. 56) had the highest proportion of unqualified staff. By 1953-54, the differential between salary schedules in this selection of units had been narrowed to $175 per year. At the same time the proportion of unqualified staff varied greatly. This may indicate that salary had limited effect on the proportion of qualified teachers employed in any given unit. In the main, however, there was not a great deal of difference in salary schedules among units, a factor which in itself may have discouraged inter-unit movement.

While salaries do not appear to be correlated to inter-unit movement of teachers, other factors related to salary may have some influence. Fringe benefits, not apparent in an examination of salary schedules, may make conditions of work more attractive in one unit than another —benefits such as compensation for administrative duties.

The degree to which such benefits influence teacher movement, however, is probably small since an examination reveals that differences among units have been minimized. Moreover, in comparison with other types of employment, it would appear that teachers enjoy conditions which are at least comparable. Following is a summary of some of the fringe benefits and the extent to which they are incorporated in teacher contracts:

1) *Security of tenure.* In all schools, when a teacher is discharged the employing board must state its reason. The teacher may then challenge the reason before a board of reference or board of conciliation.

2) *Retirement.* In all schools, the teacher contributes 5 per cent of his salary to a superannuation fund and, in addition, builds up a retirement annuity at the rate of $30 for each year of service. The plan is subsidized by the Provincial Government in lieu of employer contributions.

3) *Holidays and annual holiday.* Throughout the province, the teaching year is 200 days. If salary is considered on an annual basis, all holidays are holidays with pay.

4) *Sick leave.* Salary schedules of 44 units contained plans for cumulative sick leave in 1954-55. The amount varies with various units—from a minimum of 50 days to (in 17 per cent of the units) 200 days.

TABLE 73. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PROPORTION OF UNQUALIFIED TEACHERS AND SALARY SCHEDULES IN THE LOWEST LEVEL OF CERTIFICATION, FOR A SAMPLE OF LARGER SCHOOL UNITS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951-52 AND 1953-54

	1951-52		1953-54	
Unit	Midpoint of Salary Schedules for Interim and Permanent First	Per Cent of Staff Unqualified	Midpoint of Class I Salary Schedule	Per Cent of Staff Unqualified
	$	%	$	%
7	1,600	23.4	2,350	20.6
54	1,750	16.3	2,400	16.3
45	1,762	15.2	2,350	19.0
4	1,775	29.5	2,350	17.8
8	1,800	24.4	2,350	34.6
10	1,800	22.5	2,300	17.9
3	1,800	24.1	2,400	20.0
30	1,800	16.3	2,400	13.1
18	1,825	32.6	2,475	25.3
64	1,825	28.6	2,400	31.0
1	1,850	22.2	2,350	15.7
42	1,850	4.8	2,400	0.9
12	1,900	20.2	2,400	10.3
56	1,900	33.6	2,300	20.2
59	1,950	14.5	2,380	30.5
34	2,000	1.6	2,450	7.6

SOURCE: Records of the Department of Education, and questionnaires returned by school superintendents to the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.

5) *Sabbatical leave.* Contracts in 17 larger units provided for sabbatical leave in 1954-55. Fifteen units offer leave with two-thirds salary after ten years of service; two offer one-half salary after seven years of service.

6) *Housing.* School-owned houses or teacherages are made available at nominal rental in many units and districts.

In general, salaries for urban teaching positions are higher than salaries for comparable rural positions. Table 74 presents a comparison of average salaries paid teachers in cities, towns, and school units[16] according to the level of certification of teachers. From this table it appears that those with the lowest type of certificate earn higher salaries in urban centers than in the rural areas (units) but not many poorly qualified teachers are placed in urban centers. Teachers with first class or standard certificates earn more in the rural areas (units) than in urban centers, and those with permanent superior certificates in the rural areas earn salaries comparable to those in urban centers. Thus, it would seem that salaries alone are not the controlling factor in attracting teachers to urban centers. Although salaries in some town districts are lower than in the rural areas, many teachers prefer to teach in these urban centers.

In summary, teachers consider the low salaries of the profession an important factor contributing to the shortage of teachers. Although teachers' salaries in Saskatchewan have increased in recent years, they are still lower than teachers' salaries in the other western provinces and lower than wages in almost any other occupation in Saskatchewan. Salaries are therefore an important consideration in undertaking teaching as a profession. But the lack of correlation between salaries and movement of teachers to higher

TABLE 74. COMPARISON OF AVERAGE SALARIES PAID IN LARGER SCHOOL UNITS AND IN URBAN CENTERS BY CERTIFICATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1954-55

Type of Certification	Urban		School Units or Superintendencies	
	Number	Average Salary	Number	Average Salary
		$		$
Conditional and Temporary	30	2,538	227	2,184
Permanent Second	35	2,520	254	2,376
Interim First and Interim Standard	300	2,270	1,574	2,328
Permanent First	633	2,887	1,627	2,868
Permanent Superior	375	3,220	725	3,220
Professional	360	4,245	328	4,128
Advanced	138	4,813	105	4,698

SOURCE: *Salary Bulletin*, Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, January, 1955.

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[16] Within larger school units, rural-urban inequalities in teachers' salaries have been abolished. Salary schedules are fixed according to the qualifications and experience of the teacher. Movement of teachers within school units, therefore, must be attributed to factors other than salary.

paying areas as well as the movement of teachers to urban areas even with little or no salary improvement indicates that, having entered the profession, teachers move to new locations in large part because of factors other than salary and fringe benefits.

Conditions of Employment

Next in importance to salaries, teachers attributed the shortage of teachers, particularly in rural areas, to non-wage conditions of employment—living accommodation, isolation and lack of social life, poor facilities and equipment, and too heavy or insufficient pupil enrolment.

Accommodation. Unsatisfactory living accommodation for teachers in many rural districts was considered an important reason for the withdrawal of teachers from the profession and for the movement of teachers to urban centers. The Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation reported that "the inadequacy of rural teacherages both in equipment and size and type of building has been brought to our attention a great number of times."[17] The inspiration to guide young people and the concept of public service must be strong indeed to offset conditions in many teacherages—poor heating, lighting, furnishings, and sanitation.

Where no teacherages exist, room and board are often available only in lower income homes. "People are too prosperous to bother boarding anyone. The poorer classes take boarders to get along," the Federation reported on the basis of replies to questionnaires submitted to teachers. Furthermore, teachers who have to live some distance from the school must meet the problem of transportation.

Accommodation for teachers in hamlets, villages, and towns, is also often unsatisfactory. Married men with families often find it difficult to find suitable housing in these centers. Replies to questionnaires indicated that married men bypassed many communities because of the lack of suitable housing, and many others moved after one year because of the lack of adequate housing.

The comments of teachers on housing in rural areas and small centers explain much of the movement of teachers within the province. As long as a teacher shortage exists, those areas with inadequate housing facilities will suffer most acutely from the shortage.

Isolation and Lack of Social Life. Regardless of accommodation—whether in a teacherage or a private home—rural teachers feel that the isolation and lack of social life that characterize many rural areas are important reasons for the shortage of rural teachers. Not only is the teacher isolated geographically from people and activities in larger centers, but conditions in the rural areas restrict his contacts and may limit his activities. The Canadian Education Association in an analysis of the status of the teaching profession quoted from a study of the social and cultural life of rural teachers in Alberta.

> The family in rural areas is a closely knit co-operative unit, made so by its very isolation and its means of earning

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[17] Brief to Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1953.

> a livelihood, and the teacher, because she is a stranger, and because her type of work does not fit into this co-operative unit, is more isolated than she is likely to be in a type of society which has more diversified occupations.
>
> The teacher considers herself only a temporary member of the group.
>
> It (rural teaching) does not permit the establishment of a home and the raising of a family.[18]

The Canadian Education Association itself found:

> The teacher's personal and private life is regulated by the community and she is set apart as not having the same rights and privileges as ordinary citizens. Areas of interference:
>
> 1) Prohibition of such recreations as card playing and dancing;
>
> 2) Positive requirements such as church attendance and Sunday School teaching;
>
> 3) Attempts to secure increased community service from the teacher by requiring that she live in the district or remain in it over weekends;
>
> 4) Sometimes living quarters must be selected from the school board's approved list.[19]

While it will be evident that the teaching profession, by its very nature, requires high standards of conduct, lack of independence in personal affairs, added to the isolation and lack of social life, further contributes to the shortage of teachers in rural schools.

Facilities and Equipment. Inadequate facilities and equipment were rated by teachers in the survey next in importance to salaries, accommodation, and isolation and lack of social life as factors contributing to the teacher shortage. The Canadian Education Association in its study of national conditions also found that teachers were critical of school buildings and grounds that restrict the efficiency of the program. In equipment the shortages are mainly in physical education equipment, dramatics equipment, and audio-visual aids. It is difficult in the one-room rural school, characteristic of Saskatchewan, to provide suitable equipment for all schools or to have a full range of student activities.

Pupil Enrolment. Teachers in the Saskatchewan survey also rated pupil enrolment as a factor contributing to the withdrawal of teachers from the profession or mobility within the profession. Over-enrolment was twice as important as under-enrolment in contributing to the shortage of teachers in the opinion of teachers, but in the rural areas the small number of pupils was a cause for concern.

General Location Preference. While teachers themselves cited a number of reasons for the shortage of rural teachers, at the same time a significant proportion stated a preference for a rural teaching location provided some of the inadequacies were corrected. In the questionnaire survey, nearly 40 per cent — the largest proportion — preferred a rural teaching appointment "assuming salaries are equal, adequate students and suitable plants are available in the rural areas." Of the remainder, 19 per cent preferred a village school, 31 per cent a town school, and only 11 per cent preferred a city school. The major reason for the high regard for rural teaching was considered to be the relationship which exists between teacher and pupils. Supporters of town and city appointments pointed to the grading of students and the cultural and social advantages of urban living as their principal reasons.

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[18] Rae Chittick, "An Evaluation of the Social and Cultural Life of Teachers in Rural Communities of Alberta," unpublished thesis, Stanford University, Palo Alto, California, quoted in *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, Report of the Canadian Education Association, December, 1948, p. 70.

[19] *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, Report of the Canadian Education Association, December, 1948, p. 70.

It should be pointed out that answers were based on the assumption that rural schools contain sufficient numbers of students and adequate facilities, an assumption far from realization today. Another reason for the indicated choices may be related to the origins of respondents; 74 per cent were from rural areas or villages, 21 per cent from towns, and 5 per cent from cities.

* * *

To summarize the opinion of teachers covered in the survey, the non-wage working conditions of teachers which contribute to the unattractiveness of the profession are largely related to the conditions of rural life. Inadequate accommodation and distance from the school, isolation and lack of social life, and inadequate equipment and facilities in rural schools with limited resources explain in large measure the shortage of teachers in rural areas and the movement of teachers to urban centers. At the same time, many teachers would prefer rural appointments if some of the principal inadequacies were removed.

The movement of teachers from one-room rural schools to urban schools as they gain in experience is shown in Table 75.

Of 485 teachers who began teaching in 1949-50, 72 per cent started teaching in one-room rural schools, 6 per cent in multiple-room rural schools, 15 per cent in villages, and 6 per cent in towns and cities. In the fifth year after graduation, 36 per cent of those who remained in the profession were in one-room rural schools, 9 per cent in multiple-room rural schools, 32 per cent in village schools, and 23 per cent in the towns and cities.[20] It is apparent

TABLE 75. DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE OF TEACHERS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL, SASKATCHEWAN, 1949-50 TO 1953-54

Type of School	Per Cent of Total Teachers				
	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54
One-room rural	72.0	60.9	49.1	38.7	36.2
Multiple-room rural	6.2	8.0	7.1	7.4	8.7
Village	15.4	20.8	25.1	30.3	31.9
Town	4.5	7.6	11.9	13.3	9.4
City	1.9	2.7	6.8	10.3	13.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: Commission questionnaire returned by graduates of the 1948 summer course and the 1948-49 regular session of the Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges. See Appendix X for supporting data.

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[20] Although teachers tend to move from one-room rural schools to urban centers, the survey indicated that rural teachers withdraw from the profession in only slightly greater proportion than urban teachers.

from this analysis that the one-room school has very low priority in the teaching profession and the consequences are that our rural schools not only suffer the most from teacher shortages but also attract the greatest number of inexperienced teachers. Yet a high proportion of our youth receive their early training in these schools.

Background of Teachers

Another factor that affects the supply of teachers is the background of the teachers themselves—their place of origin and their years of experience.

The majority of teacher trainees enrolled in Teachers College have been students who grew up on farms. Of the graduates from Teachers College included in the Commission's study, 72 per cent came from farms, 23 per cent from towns and villages, and only 5 per cent from the cities. In the College of Education of the University of Saskatchewan, however, the majority of students in the past were from urban centers. In 1953-54, this trend was reversed, and the majority of students in the College of Education came from farm families (Table 76).

Thus, the supply of teachers is drawn in the main from rural youth. But the general tendency of teachers to move from rural to urban positions as they gain experience in order to enjoy the amenities of urban life decreases the supply of teachers in rural schools.

Nor does the length of teaching experience, at least within five years, contribute to retention of teachers in the profession. The Commission survey of graduates of Teachers College shows that after one year of experience 9.8 per cent of the teachers withdrew from teaching, after two years 13.3 per cent, after three years 14.7 per cent, and after four years 14.1 per cent. Approximately 57 per cent of those who withdrew were women who left to be married.

TABLE 76. FRESHMAN ENROLMENT IN COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, CLASSIFIED BY FARM AND NON-FARM ORIGINS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1950-51 TO 1953-54

College Year	Freshman Enrolment		
	Total	Farm	Non-Farm
1950-51	21	5	16
1951-52	17	7	10
1952-53	19	8	11
1953-54	27	19	8

SOURCE: Registrar, University of Saskatchewan.

EFFECTS OF THE TEACHER SHORTAGE

The shortage of qualified teachers in the rural areas of the province has inevitably had a number of effects on the educational system: (1) the lowering of the level of education provided, (2) the closing of rural schools, (3) increased salaries for teachers, (4) the development of an active recruitment program, and (5) an influence on the training of teachers and the status of the profession.

Standards of Education

A shortage of qualified teachers in rural areas has many effects on the quality of education, but effects which are difficult to measure. No one can measure the effect of poor grounding in the three R's, of the failure to instill proper and enthusiastic study habits, of the failure to develop the potentialities of children in their formative years when their receptivity to information and ideas is greatest, and of the failure to broaden horizons of children as a preparation for working and living. Clearly, however, the effect of the shortage can be seen in the number of pupils enrolled in correspondence courses and the number of study supervisors employed.

In 1953-54, 4,170 students were enrolled in Type A correspondence courses; 308 in elementary grades and 3,862 in high school grades. These students had no assistance at all from a teacher with their courses and little opportunity for classroom interchange with students in their own age group. In addition, 10,487 other students (7,737 elementary and 2,750 high school) were using correspondence courses for supplementary purposes.[11] Since 173,688 students were enrolled in elementary and high school classes in 1953-54, 8 per cent of all students had to resort to correspondence courses. The use of study supervisors (524 in 1953-54) largely explains the use of supplementary courses by elementary students and, to a lesser degree, by high school students.

Since 1952-53, the number of study supervisors has been decreasing until, in the spring term of 1955, only 250 were employed.[12] For those pupils still using correspondence courses under unqualified supervision the level of education is of necessity poor. The long-term toll in low retention in high school, shortage of candidates for professional or vocational training, and a poorly educated citizenry can only be conjectured, but the loss is undoubtedly great.

Closing of Schools

With the regrouping of school facilities in central locations, many rural schools have been closed. To some extent the shortage of teachers has accelerated the closing of rural schools. Although it is impossible to determine how many rural schools were closed because of the shortage of teachers, a consideration of the number of additional teachers needed if schools had not been closed reveals the impact of the teacher shortage on the closing of schools. By 1954, 1,411 school districts had closed schools and were conveying students by bus. In the same year 524 study supervisors were employed. While it may not be correct to assume that if no schools had been closed 1,935 schools would have been staffed with supervisors, certainly many more than 524 supervisors would have been necessary. The shortage of teachers, therefore, contributed in many instances to the decision to close schools.

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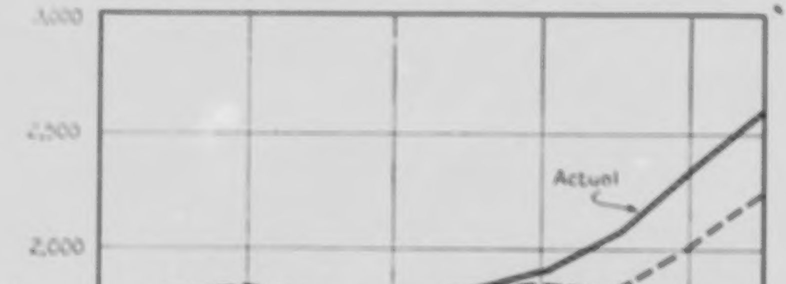
[11] See Chapter III.

[12] In the fall term of 1955, 133 study supervisors were in service.

Increased Salaries

Since education is essential to modern society, it was to be expected that the shortage of teachers would lead to an improvement in salary schedules. Although in the last 10 years there has been an absolute increase in teachers' salaries, the greater part of this increase has been absorbed by increases in living costs in the postwar years. Figure 26 shows that average annual salaries for all teachers in the province increased from $1,167 in 1944 to $2,602 in 1953-54—an increase of $1,435 in the ten-year period. But when these salaries are

FIGURE 26. AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF ALL TEACHERS FOR SASKATCHEWAN SCHOOLS, ACTUAL AND DEFLATED, 1944-1954*



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education, 1951-52 and 1953-54, and *Economic Annalist*, Canada Department of Agriculture, February, 1955. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

* Prior to 1945, average salaries were calculated on the basis of the calendar year. Since that time, salaries have been calculated on the basis of the school year ending June 30.

Note: Salaries deflated by Consumer Price Index (1949 = 100).

deflated by increases in the cost of living during that period the increase in terms of real purchasing power was only $689. Thus, the increase in the cost of living has consumed more than 50 per cent of the dollar increase in wages.

Despite this improvement in salary schedules, teachers' salaries have continued to lag behind salaries for other vocations. Gross inequities exist between teachers' salaries and remuneration for less responsible work. Although teachers' salaries have risen slightly in the past ten years, they have not risen enough to attract sufficient qualified personnel. Many school boards and ratepayers are reluctant to pay high salaries because low enrolments mean high per capita instruction costs. Some ratepayers are perhaps content with study supervisors, particularly since they can be hired more cheaply than teachers. Most school boards, however, would like to increase salaries enough to exclude all unqualified teachers from classrooms, but at the same time they wish to keep taxes from increasing. Clearly, the alternatives must be presented to the public—either the educational system will suffer from a shortage of qualified teachers, or the public must be prepared to finance salaries and facilities adequate to attract and retain high quality personnel as teachers.

Recruitment Program

The decision in 1949 to abandon short courses for the training of teachers at a time when the shortage of teachers had not been overcome necessitated the adoption of an active recruitment program. The Provincial Department of Education and the Teachers' Federation undertook a number of measures to recruit high school graduates into teaching. These included the use of booklets to encourage high school graduates to enter teaching, posters on high school bulletin boards about teaching, personal invitations to high school graduates to attend Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges, visits by superintendents of high schools and staff of Teachers Colleges to high schools to encourage enrolment in Teachers College or the College of Education of the University of Saskatchewan, broadcasts, film strips, and addresses on teacher education, and the formation in some cities of "Future Teachers of Canada" clubs.

Recruitment has also been fostered by the financial aid made available to students through the provincial revolving loan fund. The fund has a capital of $1 million from which interest free loans are made to students attending university or teacher training colleges. Table 77 shows the number of Teachers College students receiving aid from this fund, the amount lent, and the average loan per student from 1950 to 1955. Teacher training is also financed in some cases by boards of larger school units. The recipients of this aid are obligated to serve the unit for a specified length of time or refund the aid.

Finally, the program of active recruitment of teachers abroad, particularly in Great Britain, was undertaken in 1954 and again in 1955 as an emergency measure to staff the schools of the province. In 1955, 142 British teachers came to serve in Saskatchewan schools.

Teacher Training and Professional Status

When the teacher shortage first became acute during the war years, the Provincial Department of Education resorted to various emer-

TABLE 77. USE MADE OF THE STUDENT AID FUND BY STUDENTS OF TEACHERS COLLEGES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1950-1955

Year*	Total Enrolment	Number Obtaining Loans	Per Cent Total	Amount	Average Loan per Student
				$	$
1950	1,445†	378	26	64,427	170.44
1951	720‡	217	30	60,660	279.54
1952	566	197	35	52,905	268.55
1953	577	194	34	55,050	283.76
1954	574	197	34	61,020	309.75
1955	669	279	42	86,475	309.95

SOURCE: Records of the Department of Education.
* Data are for school year ending June 30.
† Including 863 summer school students.
‡ Including 65 summer school students.

gency measures to staff classrooms—short courses in the normal schools and conditional certificates and letters of authority. In 1949, short courses were abandoned as detrimental to the status of the teaching profession. Today few certificated teachers fail to meet the requirements of the positions they hold. Before a teacher can be appointed to a position higher than that for which he is qualified, a Letter of Authority is required. In 1952-53, 188 teachers were appointed on Letters of Authority, of whom about 100 were special instructors qualified in music, art, or vocational training but not necessarily graduates of teacher training courses. In 1954-55, this number was reduced to 156.

The inclusion of partially qualified teachers in the past has hurt the prestige of the profession and consequently hurt the supply of teachers. The Canadian Education Association found in a survey among teachers that "inadequate training" ranks high in the reasons for lack of prestige of the profession.[23] Teachers in training and teachers in service in Saskatchewan are also concerned about the effect of inadequate training on the prestige of the profession.

In recognition of the importance of adequate training, those in charge of teacher training in Saskatchewan have raised standards for the training of teachers and are considering further improvements. Despite somewhat higher standards, the enrolment of students in teacher training courses has increased. Although the increase in enrolment may be due in part to increases in teacher salary schedules, improved salaries also serve to increase the prestige of the profession. It is to the credit of the officials concerned with the supply of teachers in Saskatchewan that the number of unqualified persons serving in the schools has been greatly reduced in recent years without lowering standards for qualification of teachers.

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[23] *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, Report of the Canadian Education Association, December, 1948, pp. 74, 75.

Even when all teachers meet the present minimum qualifications, however, the need for improvement will continue. As the extent of the teacher shortage decreases, education authorities will be able to raise their sights to higher standards for teacher qualification. A number of aspects of teacher training improvement as they apply to increasing the supply of qualified teachers will be considered in a later section of this chapter.

MEASURES TO INCREASE THE SUPPLY OF QUALIFIED TEACHERS

Centralization of School Facilities

The centralization of school facilities in larger attendance areas around villages and towns has been the most important development in education in recent years. Undertaken as an adjustment to sparsity of rural population, centralized schools have also brought many benefits to the teaching profession. Conditions for teaching are improved because teachers are not required to teach so many grades as in rural schools, and they have the opportunity for professional interchange with colleagues as well. Centralized schools improve the conditions of employment that make rural teaching unattractive. Better living accommodations are usually available, the isolation and lack of social life are corrected to some extent, improved facilities and equipment can be provided, and pupil enrolment can be adjusted to desirable levels.

It has been estimated that consolidation of school facilities has meant a saving of approximately one teacher for every two schools closed. In order to determine the effect of consolidation on the supply of teachers it is necessary to examine the distribution of teachers in various types of schools and the retention of teachers by various types of schools. Table 75 showed the distribution of a sample of teachers among various types of schools in the first five years of teaching. The percentage of teachers who remained in one-room schools declined steadily each year, while the percentage of teachers in the sample who taught in other types of school increased in the five-year period. Since the vast majority of teachers started teaching in one-room rural schools and moved to other types of schools, it is clear that teachers find teaching in urban or central schools more desirable. From this evidence on movement of teachers from one-room rural schools, it would appear that centralization as it develops will improve teacher retention.

Teachers themselves feel that centralization will promote acquisition and retention of teachers. Of 446 replies by teachers to a questionnaire, 415 felt that centralization would help the supply of teachers, while only 31 felt that it would have no influence. The reasons expressed by teachers were: (1) isolation would be overcome,

(2) the number of grades per teacher would be reduced, (3) better equipment would be available, and (4) teachers would be able to exchange opinions and problems with fellow teachers.

Most education officials regard centralization of school facilities as an important measure to alleviate the shortage of teachers. Since the main reason for the shortage of teachers is the loss of teachers to other locations and vocations, education officials regard the improvement of working conditions made possible by consolidation as basic to the retention of an adequate supply of teachers.

In view of the fact that about 500 one-room schools in Saskatchewan have fewer than 10 pupils each, it is clear that a large proportion of teachers are not fully utilized nor given the resources to provide the best in modern teaching. Teachers themselves would welcome further consolidation of rural schools. Consolidation of school facilities, therefore, can provide better educational facilities and increase the supply of teachers.

Teacher Training Program[24]

The prestige and status of the teaching profession are acknowledged by students and teachers alike to be important factors in attracting candidates to the profession and in retaining them once they have become teachers. The Canadian Education Association, after a thorough study of the status of the teaching profession, recommended "that the minimum pre-service period of teacher education be two years beyond graduation from the high school"[25] and "that the two-year course of professional training cover a total of approximately 60 weeks."[26] Students at the Teachers College in Moose Jaw stated in a brief to the Commission that "a one-year program is inadequate both in length and content." If the prestige and status of teaching are to be enhanced, then the training of teachers must more nearly approach the training required in other professions.

In addition, effective teaching in today's complex world demands more thorough academic and professional preparation than was true in the past. Greater and more diverse knowledge plus more highly developed teaching skills are required if the teacher is to be equipped to prepare youth to understand and cope with the requirements of modern life.

Does Saskatchewan's teacher training program meet modern requirements? Required at present are a ten-month course at Teachers College and, for a permanent or standard certificate, an additional five university classes. The university classes may be taken by correspondence, by attendance at five summer sessions, or by attendance at the university for a full year. In effect, the total requirements constitute a two-year course, although not two years of *pre-service* training. The second year may be taken over an extended period after the teaching career is begun.

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[24] For a detailed description of facilities and costs in the present teacher training program and in the two-year program, see Appendix XI.

[25] "The Status of the Teaching Profession," *Canadian Education*, December, 1949, p. 18.

[26] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

While the present program represents a new high in professional standards in the province, several aspects require improvement if standards are to approach those in other professional training. Entrance requirements for teacher training, for example, are below standard University entrance requirements. To gain University entrance a student must have completed Grade XII with a 60 per cent average; Teachers College entrance may be gained with a Grade XII standing and a 50 per cent average. In addition, applicants in recent years have been accepted with as many as two academic deficiencies, although no certificates are issued until deficiencies are removed. In 1955-56, approximately 16 per cent of those enrolled at Saskatoon Teachers College were deficient in one or two Grade XII classes. All graduates of Teachers College, however, regardless of either high school or college academic standing, are accepted for University classes.

Another area in which teacher training could be made more effective is in the relationship between Teachers College training and subsequent University classes. At present, apart from one required English course, the student teacher may elect any University classes for which he is eligible. None is required to be in the College of Education. This lack of co-ordination between Teachers College and University means that no formal attempt is made to guide the more advanced training along lines needed to supplement earlier education. Furthermore, for the majority who complete university classes by correspondence, little or no opportunity exists for personal contact with professional advisors.

A teacher training program based on academic requirements similar to those for other professions and planned and executed by a single authority would do much to raise standards of teacher training and enhance teachers' professional status in the province. A co-ordinated program could be achieved in two ways. Either Teachers College could be expanded to assume responsibility for the full two-year course, or Teachers College and the University could continue to share a program co-ordinated through a single authority which represented the provincial teacher training program and the College of Education.

A co-ordinated program designed to achieve the objectives discussed here has been initiated in British Columbia. It provides that both elementary and secondary teachers be trained in the College of Education at the University. The College will rank as a faculty within the University, but will differ from other faculties in having its own joint board on which will be represented the University, the Provincial Department of Education, the Teachers College, and school trustees' and teachers' organizations. The joint board is empowered to make recommendations to the University and the Department of Education regarding curricula, staffing, budgetary provisions, and capital expenditures.

For 1956, the joint board of the College has approved plans to offer a two-year intramural training program for students with University entrance requirements and, in addition, two one-year courses. Of the shorter courses, one will be for students who have completed Grade XIII (University first year) and the other for Grade XII graduates. The course for Grade XII graduates is recognized as an interim measure designed to maintain an adequate supply of teachers while the training program is in a period of transition. Graduates of the interim course will receive certificates valid only for four years. During this time interim certificate holders will be expected to make up the additional year's work. Secondary school teachers will be trained either through a straight five-year course or through a three-year course in addition to the elementary training program.

Despite the desirability of a program of this type, however, its implementation in Saskatchewan could be undertaken only after careful consideration of a number of associated problems. Initially, it is likely that the institution of a two-year pre-service program would decrease the flow of graduates to schools requiring teachers. The present teacher shortage makes imperative the provision of a maximum number of teachers with at least minimum qualifications. At present, 765 teaching positions are held by persons with less than the minimum qualifications. If a two-year program were to decrease the number of graduates even for a single year, the staffing of these positions by qualified teachers would be further delayed.

Furthermore, the large number of young women teachers who leave the profession because of marriage in the first few years of teaching must be considered. Traditionally, 75 per cent of those enrolled in Teachers College have been women. If a second year of training were compulsory, a significant number of young women might decide to bypass the teaching profession entirely in favour of a less expensive and shorter training. It is not known whether the increased status and salaries that would probably accompany improved training would offset the disadvantage of the longer period of training. Nor is it known whether the improved conditions in the profession because of higher qualifications would induce more young men to enter teaching. It will be apparent that as more young men are attracted to teaching as a career then a key factor in the teacher shortage will diminish in importance.

Finally, it is questionable whether increased training would deter withdrawals from the profession. Of the 259 graduates in 1948-49 who left the profession between 1950 and 1953, by far the greatest number were those with interim or permanent first certificates rather than those with temporary or conditional certificates. Perhaps, however, the level of certification is immaterial to withdrawal, since nearly 60 per cent of the withdrawals occurred because of marriage.

Despite these indications that the immediate effect of the institution of a two-year training program might be to reduce the supply of teachers, most educators feel that ultimately such a program will increase the supply of qualified teachers. The faculty of the College of Education of the University of Saskatchewan recommended that the period of teacher training be increased to at least two and preferably four years in order to decrease annual turnover of teachers and raise the level of instruction.

Eighty-eight per cent of teachers queried in a survey stated that the requirement of supplementary summer sessions was a deterrent both to recruitment and retention of teachers; 79 per cent felt that a two-year course would favour retention, but only 56 per cent stated they would prefer the straight two-year course to the present system.

The Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, in supporting a compulsory two-year training program as "a minimum period to carry out a reasonable program covering all phases of teacher training,"[27] contended that such a program would raise the prestige of the profession and encourage recruitment. The Federation pointed out that enrolment in teacher training institutions increased when higher standards of qualification were required. The Federation feels that the better service offered as a result of better training will do much to rally public support for the teaching profession and in the long run will attract and retain an adequate number of qualified teachers.

To make an improved teacher training program feasible, increased financial aid to students will be necessary. In 1954-55, 279 of the 650 students enrolled in the one-year course at Teachers College received loans from the Provincial Student Aid Fund, and an additional 25 students received aid from other sources including larger school units. Thus, of the 650 students enrolled at Teachers College in 1954-55, 304 students or 47 per cent received loans averaging $300 each from public sources. If a two-year course of training were required before undertaking teaching, increased financial aid to students would be necessary.

Improvement in the teacher training program alone, however, could not lead to an eventual increase in the supply of teachers. In addition, salaries would have to be increased. There is no point in undertaking a two-year training program without a readiness to pay salaries commensurate with improved qualifications. The Commission gained the impression at community hearings that the public is not aware of the present level of teachers' salaries. Estimates of a suitable starting salary for teachers were invariably below salaries currently offered. Increased salaries for teachers depend finally on public understanding of the importance of the profession.

A two-year training program would have to be coupled also with increased centralization of school facilities. There is grave doubt that one-room rural schools generally can pay the salaries required for well-trained teachers. Centralization is the immediate solution to the shortage of teachers, although as the quality of education improves, more teachers, particularly specialized teachers, will undoubtedly be required in centralized schools. To take advantage of more highly trained teachers they would have to be placed in graded schools with adequate enrolment and facilities—improvements that can be accomplished only through centralization.

These measures, then, can improve the supply of teachers—centralization of school facilities and closing of more one-room rural schools, better salaries and working conditions, and improved teacher training with increased financial aid to student teachers. Since Saskatchewan is training an adequate number of new recruits each year, the need is to retain the teachers who are trained. If rural teaching can be made sufficiently attractive, the shortage of teachers can be overcome. And on an adequate supply of qualified teachers depends the character and level of the educational system as a whole.

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[27] H. Trout, Director of Field Services, Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation.

SUMMARY

The shortage of teachers occasioned by World War II has continued into the postwar years. Despite various measures to increase the supply of teachers, the shortage is critical. Although the proportion of unqualified personnel has been reduced by 50 per cent in the years from 1949 to 1954, in 1954, 765 persons holding teaching positions or 8.7 per cent of the teaching force had less than the minimum qualifications. As a measure of the shortage of teachers, 524 study supervisors were employed in 1954. The number of study supervisors in service, however, has been steadily declining since that time.

The teacher shortage in Saskatchewan cannot be explained primarily in terms of the birth rates during the depression and postwar years as in other provinces of Canada and in the United States. The birth rate in Saskatchewan during the depression did not decline so seriously as in other places, and the ratio of persons born during the depression, from which the present teacher supply is drawn, to the number of persons born during the postwar years, from which the pupils are now drawn, is more favourable than elsewhere in Canada.

The shortage of teachers in Saskatchewan can be explained by the loss of trained teachers. Saskatchewan loses annually about 10 per cent of its trained teachers. Nearly 60 per cent of withdrawals are because of marriage, retirement, or health, and 26 per cent because of transfer to other locations and vocations.

This loss in trained teachers has not been made up by new recruits to the profession. The annual graduating class of about 600 from Teachers College—7 per cent of the total teaching force of the province—is enough to offset the loss of the 7 per cent of teachers who leave for marriage or retirement but not enough to offset the additional 3 per cent who leave for other vocations or locations. Nor is the immigration of teachers enough to offset the loss.

The factors contributing to the shortage of teachers are (1) salaries, (2) conditions of employment, and (3) the background of teachers—their origin in rural or urban communities and their years of experience.

1) Average teachers' salaries in Saskatchewan are lower than average salaries in some other provinces, although the differential has been narrowed by recent adjustments in Saskatchewan. In the years 1950-1953, average teachers' salaries in Saskatchewan were lower than average wages of industrial workers and general duty nurses in the province, although the differential has been decreasing.

If salaries are the main explanation for withdrawal of teachers, it would be expected that higher salaries in one area of the province would attract teachers from areas of lower salary, but no such movement to higher paying areas can be discerned, perhaps because the salary differential between units is not sufficiently great. Varying fringe benefits, such as compensation for administrative duties, may induce teachers to remain in units with relatively low basic salaries, although here again differences are not significant.

Despite the existence of a rural-urban differential in teachers' salaries, salaries are not the controlling factor in attracting teachers to urban centers. Although salaries are often lower in small urban centers than in rural areas, many teachers prefer to teach in small urban centers. Salaries may be an important consideration in the determination to undertake teaching as a profession, but the relocation of teachers within the profession is strongly affected by other conditions of work.

2) Non-wage conditions of employment contribute to the shortage of rural teachers — unattractive accommodation for teachers in the rural areas and in small urban centers as well, the isolation of rural teaching and the lack of social life, inadequate school facilities and equipment, and pupil enrolment—both over- and under-enrolment. These factors contribute to the movement of teachers from rural to urban schools as they gain in experience.

3) The background of teachers is also a factor contributing to the shortage of teachers. The supply of teachers is drawn in the main from rural youth; nevertheless, the movement of teachers from rural to urban positions in order to enjoy the amenities of urban life decreases the supply of rural teachers. Longer teaching experience does not seem to contribute to the retention of teachers in the profession. Since marriage is the reason for the withdrawal of the largest number of teachers, however, the number of years of experience may be irrelevant to teacher retention.

The shortage of teachers has resulted in lowering the level of instruction in the schools, in closing of rural schools, in increased salaries for teachers, in the development of an active recruitment program, in improved teacher training, and in harm to the status of the profession.

The main remedial measure to increase the supply of qualified teachers rests in consolidation of school facilities so that rural teaching will be attractive to qualified teachers and so that teachers will be fully utilized. Improved teacher training will ultimately favour recruitment and retention of teachers by raising the status of the profession, but improved training must be coupled with increased financing for teacher training, higher salaries for teachers, and consolidation of school facilities to improve salaries and conditions of work.

CHAPTER VIII

Retention of Pupils in Saskatchewan Schools

The level of educational attainment is a vital factor in the social and economic progress not only of the individual, but also of the society in which he lives. For the individual, the degree of educational attainment helps determine his employment opportunities and advancement and his understanding of the complex economic and social environment in which he lives. It also determines, in part, his capacity to adjust to changes in his environment, an aspect of increasing importance in the modern world. Perhaps more important, in a social sense, is the relationship of educational attainment to the desire and ability to shape the environment to serve democratic society. Rational democratic decisions are essential to social progress. Today, when the means are at hand for undreamed of social control of environment on the one hand, and mass destruction on the other, the level of educational attainment, as a major factor in determining the level of social understanding and responsibility, deserves the most careful consideration.

Formal education provides only part of the individual's level of attainment, but it is the core of the educational process. The school, therefore, has a key role to play in raising the educational attainment of youth, thereby better preparing them to assume their social responsibilities. Preparation of youth to participate in and contribute to social progress would appear to be more important now and in the future than it ever has been in the past.

For rural education, there are special implications as well. Traditionally, farming has been something learned by close association with the soil, not by books; beyond the three R's, most farmers in the past educated themselves. A number of factors — lack of educational facilities, scarcity of teachers, sparse population, and the need for family labour on the farm — have contributed to the persistence of low educational attainment. When the farmer led a more isolated, self-sufficient existence, the social and economic implications of this situation were relatively small; today, with commercialized farming, large capital investments, increased interdependence with the rest of society, and the consequences of mechanization, a low level of educational attainment is a roadblock to rural progress and individual advancement.

With the changes that have taken place in agriculture, rural educational needs have changed. Farms have become larger, and farmers and farm youth have become fewer. Farm labour force requirements have declined drastically, with the result that farm youth have been forced to seek employment elsewhere. Saskatchewan has exported more of its population in the last two decades—both in proportion and in actual numbers—than has any other province.[1] The implications for education are twofold: the need to train farm youth in new skills, and the need to prepare them to adapt to a new environment.

Mechanization has created the need for a highly trained technical service force to distribute, maintain, and service farm machinery. Other personnel are required to fulfill the increased commercial needs of agriculture. Transforming a part of the surplus farm labour force into trained technical and professional personnel for the farm service force is a need which can be met by education.

For those who remain on the farms, mechanization, the growth of farming as a business, and the increase in the size of farm operations have increased the training and education requirements of farming. The successful farmer must be a good business manager, a competent mechanic, and be able to apply science to farming. To provide the opportunities for such training is another need to be met by education.

It should be pointed out that despite the decline of the rural population and the growth of the larger urban centers in the province, more than half of the population of school age (5-19) were recorded as living on farms in the 1951 census. Thus the rural education system is not only the more critical in terms of area served, but it provides the basic education for the majority of youth. If the widely accepted democratic principle of equal educational opportunity for all is to be meaningful in a sparsely settled agricultural province, special attention must be given to the problems of rural attendance and continuation in school.

To fulfill the broad social requirements as well as the needs specific to the rural population, administrators may make many adjustments in curricula and facilities; they can be successful, however, only to the degree that students continue in school to complete a satisfactory minimum education. In light of the requirements, that minimum should be nothing less than completion of high school. Yet, a very low proportion of young people are graduating from high school in Saskatchewan. Table 78 reveals that, based on enrolment in Grade VI in 1942, subsequent enrolments were proportionately lower in Saskatchewan than in other western provinces. Enrolment in Grade XI in 1947 in Saskatchewan showed that only one in three of the pupils who had been in Grade VI in 1942 were still attending school. In British Columbia, the proportion was more than half. Alberta and Manitoba showed proportions about midway between Saskatchewan and British Columbia.

Such comparisons do not take account of all factors, but they do provide an approximate index to the severity of the problem of retention in Saskatchewan. This chapter will attempt to analyse

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[1] Saskatchewan lost 358,000 persons in interprovincial migration from 1931 to 1951. In recent years interprovincial migration has been replaced largely by rural-urban migration within the province. See *Canada Year Book*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1954, p. 128.

TABLE 78. RETENTION OF STUDENTS IN SCHOOL BY SELECTED PROVINCES, 1947

Grade	Saskatchewan	Alberta	Manitoba	British Columbia
VI	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
VIII	75.7	80.4	79.4	95.2
X	44.9	52.0	53.6	68.7
XI	33.7	41.8	43.8	53.2

SOURCE: *Canadian Education*, Report of Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, Vol. IV, No. 2, 1949, p. 42.

the extent of the problem in high school grades, consider some of the factors related to retention, discuss some of the implications of low retention, and suggest methods of increasing the retentive power of the schools.

The high school student in Saskatchewan attends either public high school or a private school or uses the services of the Government Correspondence School. The great majority of students attend one of three types of public high school:

1) *Schools operating under the School Act.* This classification includes rural schools and schools in small urban centers under 2,000 population. In such a school, high school and elementary programs are administered by a single school board.

2) *Schools operating under the Secondary Education Act.* This group includes town and city schools which are administered by high school boards. They will be referred to in this chapter as collegiates. No new collegiates have been organized under this Act since 1919.

3) *Schools operating under the Vocational Education Act.* This classification includes three technical schools: Saskatoon Technical Collegiate, Balfour Technical Collegiate (Regina), and Moose Jaw Technical High School.

The Government Correspondence School is directed and operated by the Provincial Department of Education. It offers two types of courses: Type A, designed for the student studying alone, includes lesson helps and department supervision; Type B, designed for the rural student enrolled in school, includes the same basic material as the Type A course, but assumes supervision by the teacher in the student's school.

A number of private schools offer high school training in Saskatchewan. They do not, however, report enrolments or other information to the Department of Education, and data concerning their operation are limited. In only a few instances, where data are available, are they considered in this chapter.

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STUDENT RETENTION THROUGH HIGH SCHOOL GRADES[1]

The usual measure of retention, and the one used here, is to compare enrolment in a base grade with enrolments in subsequent grades in successive years. If enrolment in Grade VI in 1940 is used as a base, for example, Grade IX enrolment in 1943 would provide a comparable factor. Such a method has certain limitations. It does not, for one thing, reflect failures in a given grade. If it may be assumed that the rate of failures is fairly uniform for all grades, however, little distortion results. Another shortcoming of the measurement is that it assumes a constant population. If significant migration occurs into or out of the grades under consideration, comparisons from year to year become distorted. The effect of this aspect in Saskatchewan is discussed later in this section.

Retention From Elementary to High School

The first element of retention to consider is the continuation of students from grade to high school. Figure 27 indicates the retention of Grade VI students in high school grades for selected years, beginning in 1940. Grade VI was selected as the base because some students have fulfilled the compulsory requirement (i.e., reached age 15) before entering Grade VII. Enrolment includes students in schools operating under the School Act, the Secondary Education Act, and the Vocational Education Act.

The general level of retention indicates that about two-thirds of Grade VI students enter an organized public high school; somewhat more than one-third reach Grade XI; and only one-fourth reach Grade XII. The proportion of students entering Grade IX has increased slowly but steadily in the years under review—a total increase of about 8 per cent. The proportion of Grade VI students reaching the higher secondary grades, however, has remained almost constant. In other words, a slightly greater proportion of pupils is entering high school, but the increase has dropped out before reaching Grade XI.

The picture presented here is incomplete in at least two respects. It does not include continuation to Government Correspondence School nor does it include enrolments at private schools. When the available figures are added, the retention for

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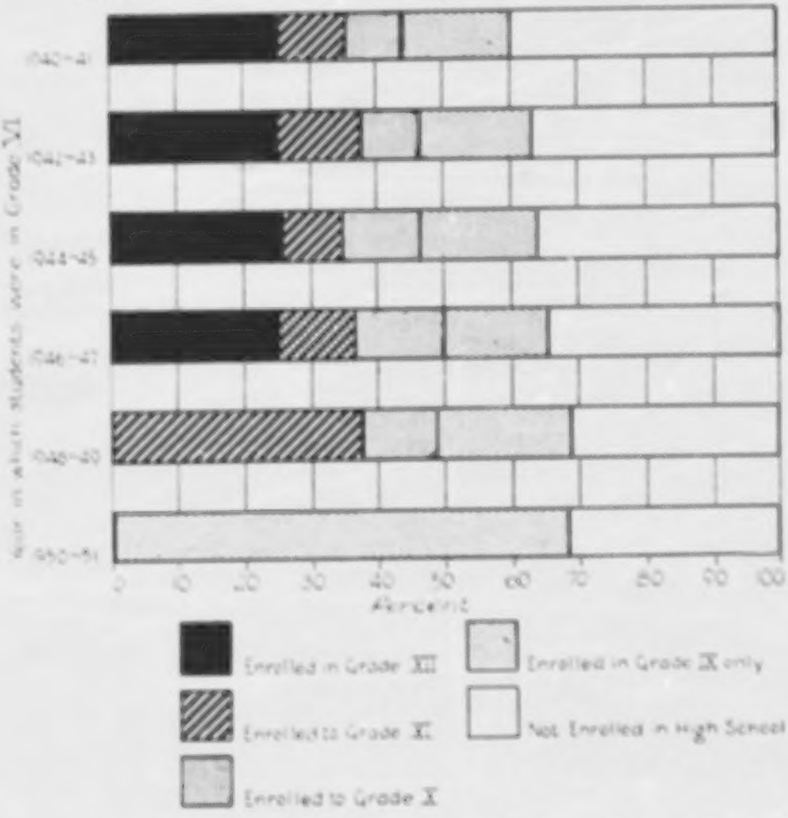
[1] A thorough analysis of student retention is practically impossible because suitable statistics are not available, both from the provincial viewpoint, and also in terms of an internal analysis by different classifications.

Using a base grade and calculating subsequent grade enrolments as a measure of retention has two limitations: it assumes no failures, and a constant population from one year to the next. The establishment of total grade enrolments is difficult because of the fact that some private schools do not report enrolments; and correspondence school enrolments may or may not represent students taking complete grades, or may represent persons who are not students of consecutive grades.

Internal analyses in terms of type of school, home origin of students, and regional variations are impossible to obtain from general statistics. Evidence indicates that there are sufficiently significant differences in these categories to merit the keeping of more specific statistics.

FIGURE 27. PERCENTAGE OF GRADE VI STUDENTS WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES IX, X, XI, AND XII IN SCHOOLS OPERATING UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1950-51



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

all grades in high school is somewhat improved (Figure 28).[3] More than three-fourths of Grade VI students enter high school; more than half reach Grade X; and nearly one-third reach Grade XII. In Grades IX and X it would appear that the degree of retention is improving slightly over time, and in Grades XI and XII, that retention

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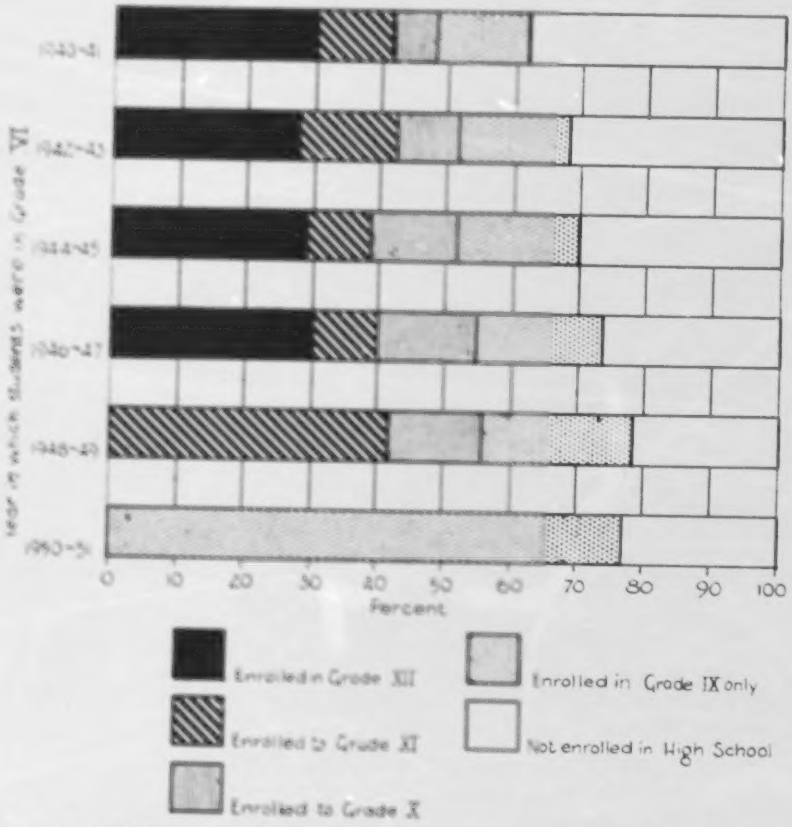
[3] It is recognized that the majority of students enrolled in Correspondence School, particularly senior high school students, are taking less than a complete grade; also that a student may be enrolled in more than one grade. When the number of high school classes taken by correspondence is divided by the number of students, the result indicates that correspondence students take less than a complete grade. It also indicates that, if a complete grade is to be taken by correspondence, a student is required to remain in school longer than if direct attendance is possible.

Figure 28. Percentage of Grade VI Students Who Later Enroll in Grades IX, X, XI, and XII, Including Government Correspondence School and Private Schools, Saskatchewan, 1940-41 to 1950-51



Source: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

is relatively stable with indications of a very slight upward trend.

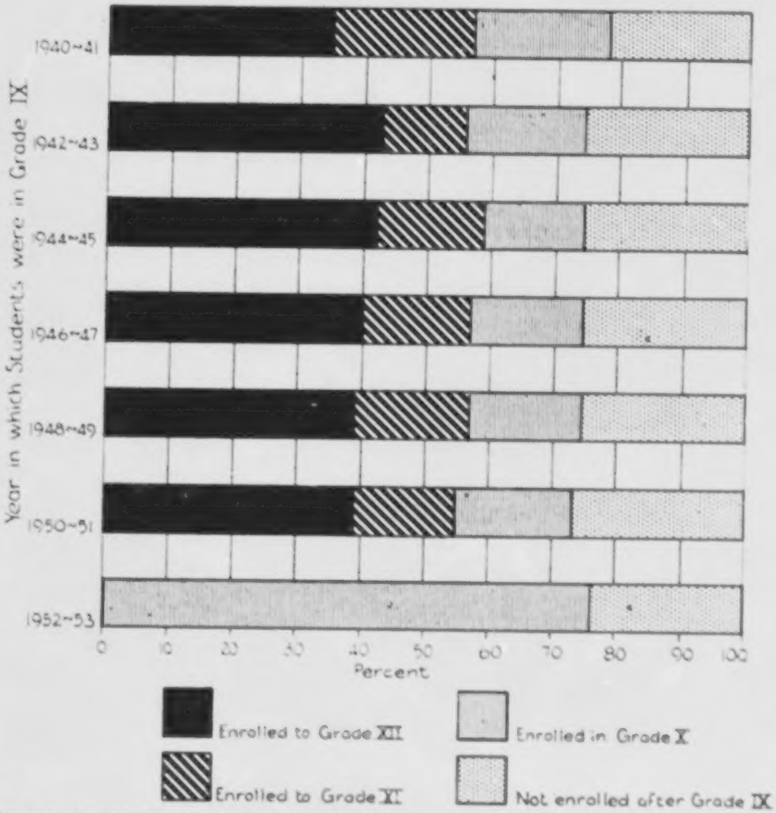
Thus, from this evidence it would appear that in Saskatchewan one-fourth of the students drop out of school between Grade VI (or the completion of their compulsory years) and entering high school. An additional 45 per cent of Grade VI students have left high school before reaching Grade XII. Retention is low, but is improving slightly over time for the lower high school grades and is remaining at a relatively stable figure in the upper grades.

Retention in High School

If one shifts the base to Grade IX, somewhat different trends emerge (Figure 29). Included here are students enrolled in schools operating under the three Acts cited earlier; excluded are correspondence students and private school students. The graph shows that one-fourth of Grade IX students drop out before entering Grade X; almost half before Grade XI; and 60 per cent before Grade XII.

Over time, retention in Grade X has been quite stable. Grades XI and XII show a rise in the years immediately following World War II which may be accounted for by returning veterans completing their education. If one discounts this

FIGURE 29. PERCENTAGE OF GRADE IX STUDENTS WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES X, XI, AND XII IN SCHOOLS OPERATING UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1952-53



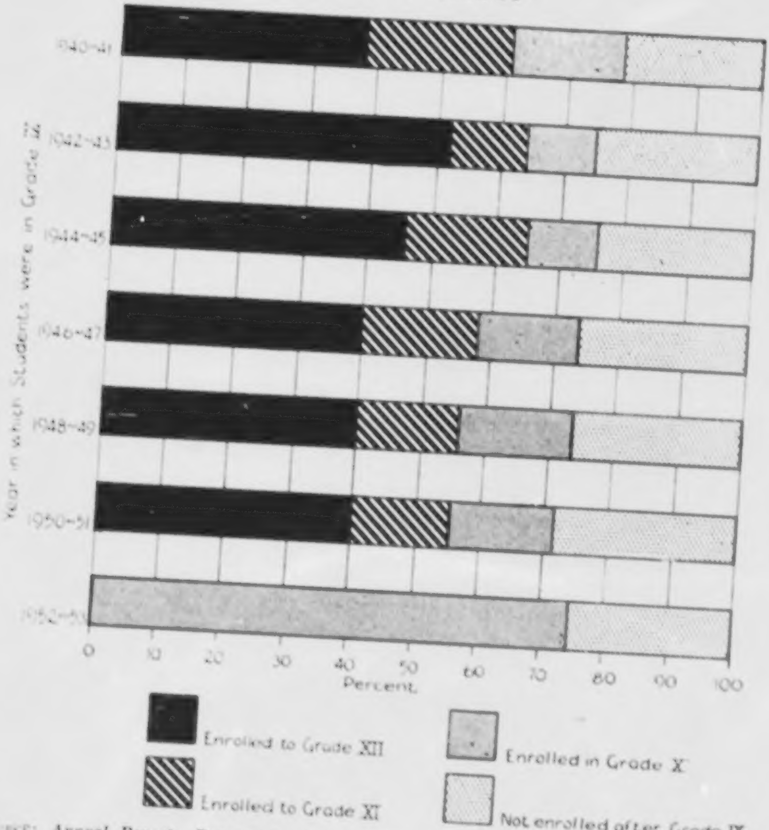
SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

factor, Grade XI exhibits a fairly stable retention, with evidence of a very slight downward trend in recent years. Grade XII shows a slightly higher rate of retention than it did before 1945, but here, too, recent figures are slowly decreasing.

The addition of correspondence students to the total (Figure 30) changes recent proportions only slightly. Discounting the high enrolments in Grades XI and XII in 1946 to 1948, all grades appear to be reasonably stable in retention. The slight downward trends in the previous graph have practically disappeared here.

In summary, retention in Saskatchewan is low, whether considered from Grade VI to high school or from Grade IX to later grades.

FIGURE 30. PERCENTAGE OF GRADE IX STUDENTS WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES X, XI, AND XII, INCLUDING GOVERNMENT CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1952-53



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

There is a trend towards the continuation of more elementary school students into high school grades, the increase being most significant in Grades IX and X. Using Grade IX as a base, however, there does not appear to be any increase in the retaining power of the high school itself. Thus, more Grade VI students are continuing to Grade IX, but, once enrolled in high school, there is no recent increase in the proportion completing high school.

Loss of Population

Measuring retention by measuring enrolments in grades and years successive to a selected base is valid only if the population is stable during the measurement period. Any substantial movement into or out of the area served by the school system will introduce a distorting factor because associated changes in enrolments are not related to the retaining power of the schools. The statistical picture of retention presented thus far, then, must be qualified by the large population loss suffered by Saskatchewan—a decline of 11 per cent from 1936 to 1951.

A precise calculation of the effects of population loss is difficult because population statistics are available only at five-year intervals. Furthermore, although losses by age groups are calculable, there is no way of determining exactly which grades are affected. Grade VI, for example, includes several age groups, but which ones and in what proportions it is impossible to identify.

While it is not possible to derive an accurate correction factor, the importance of population loss can be indicated by assuming an age-grade correlation. For purposes of this illustration, it is assumed that all 11-year-olds are Grade VI students. The same students five years later would be 16 years old and should be in Grade XI. The difference between the number of 11-year-olds in 1936 and the number of 16-year-olds in 1941 represents, for practical purposes, the net migration out of the province. To correct for the population factor, then, this loss should be subtracted from the total number of drop-outs for the period.

For three time periods, population loss affecting Grade VI students (11-year-olds) can be expressed in the following percentages:

1936-1941	3.2 per cent
1941-1946	8.5 per cent
1946-1951	11.4 per cent

Application of these percentages to the gross drop-outs for the same three time periods is presented in Table 79.

Thus, despite the possible errors involved, it can be concluded that the factor of population loss constitutes an important qualification to the gross retention statistics. In other words, although the retaining power of the schools appears to have been stable over the period 1936-1951, actually, when qualified by population loss, the picture is one of reasonable improvement. Nevertheless, it is still apparent that greater progress is required in increasing the proportion of young people completing high school.

TABLE 79. PROPORTION OF DROP-OUTS CORRECTED FOR POPULATION LOSS, GRADE VI TO GRADE XI

Time Period	Gross Drop-outs	Net Drop-outs
	Per cent	
1936-1941	63.0	60.9
1941-1946	63.6	58.2
1946-1951	62.8	55.7

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, and *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

FACTORS RELATED TO RETENTION

It was noted earlier that Saskatchewan occupies an unfavourable position in retention of youth in school compared to other provinces.

An examination of the situation in the schools of the province during the period 1936-1951 showed that retention is low, particularly in high school grades, although there has been some measure of improvement. An analysis of factors related to retention may offer clues to the identification of deficiencies.

A thorough study of retention would include case studies of drop-outs as well as quantitative data gathered from students, parents, and school personnel. Such a project was beyond the scope of this report. However, drop-out studies conducted elsewhere, one of which involved a sampling of Saskatchewan students, plus a questionnaire survey of school unit superintendents in the province, provided valuable information. Still other data were procured from Department of Education and census statistics, particularly comparisons of retention by types of school, sex, and rural-urban residence.

A wide variety of possible factors suggest themselves in a consideration of retention. Some are measurable, others are not. But nearly all can be classified as relating to school facilities, to curricula and teaching, or to some socio-economic influence in the life of the student and his family.

Factors identified by individuals and organizations in briefs to the Commission and in hearings across the province included the following:

Facilities. A number of rural people suggested that the necessity of using correspondence courses in rural schools discouraged students from continuing to high school grades. This factor is closely related to another frequently mentioned: the lack of qualified teachers. It was noted in a previous chapter that there has been a decline in the number of rural teachers who are willing to teach high school grades. Where this situation exists, students must rely on correspondence courses or attend a different school. Rural people in isolated areas added a third factor here: the distance between farm and school. In this sparsely settled province conveyance to high school is only spottily provided, which often means that a student must live away from home in order to attend. The cost of separate maintenance, even if partially reimbursed by school districts, was said to be too high for many families to afford.

Curricula. Some rural people said that their children were not interested in the straight academic curriculum, and, since there were few alternatives, the students dropped out. Others, however, were insistent that the basic academic subjects receive full emphasis. The lack of suitable alternatives in the curriculum would seem to be a criticism particularly of one-room rural schools and the small high schools.

Socio-Economic. The only socio-economic factor mentioned frequently in community forums and briefs was the need for the assistance of the student in farm work. A number of rural people felt that farm students leave school when their compulsory years are completed in order to work on the farm.

The Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education conducted a national survey of the school drop-out situation in 1948.[4] While the Committee's classification of factors differed from the one adopted here, its investigation indicated that, with respect to the Saskatchewan sample, curriculum problems were the most important factors, with economic considerations next. Several other studies conducted in Canada and the United States will be referred to in this section.

Facilities

Availability of facilities to students may have an important relationship to retention, particularly in a province where much of the rural population is widely dispersed. In this discussion of facilities, two aspects will be considered: the number of facilities in relation to need and the geographical distribution of facilities; that is, availability in terms of distance from home to school.

For these purposes, the schools providing high school education in the province will be considered in groups differing somewhat from the previous classification:

1) Schools organized under the School Act which operate rooms exclusively for students above Grade VII. If Grade VIII students are included in the high school room, the school is called a continuation school; if high school students have a room or rooms for their exclusive use, the school is known as a high school. In 1953-54, continuation schools and high schools accounted for 17,592 students, 60 per cent of the total high school enrolment.

2) One-room rural schools, also organized under the School Act, which include one or more pupils pursuing high school work. The number of high school students enrolled in such schools in 1953-54 totalled 2,771.

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[4] *Your Child Leaves School,* Second Report, Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, Toronto, 1950.

3) Schools administered by high school boards, including both collegiates and vocational high schools. Confined to the larger urban districts, such schools in 1953-54 have an enrolment of 8,945, slightly less than one-third of the total.

Some indication of the general availability of facilities can be obtained by comparing the number of high school rooms with the potential number of high school students. Such a comparison is contained in Table 80 for the census years of 1941, 1946, and 1951. For purposes of the comparison, it is assumed that the census age classification 15-19 years corresponds to the potential high school enrolment.

The number of high school rooms includes all those assigned to high school purposes in the first and third classifications of schools listed above. One-room rural schools are excluded because they are primarily elementary classrooms and because nearly all of the small portion of high school students enrolled in them are studying by correspondence course under the direction of the Government Correspondence School. These rooms, therefore, do not possess even minimum qualifications as high school facilities.

It will be seen that the ratio of rooms to potential students improved substantially in the period under review. In fact, the number of rooms increased absolutely during a period of declining population. This gross measurement would indicate that, if availability of facilities is related to retention, the situation should have been much improved in 1951 over 1941. It was noted earlier that the actual improvement in retention from Grade VI to high school during these years was moderate but unmistakable, even when population loss was not considered.

Such an indication of the relationship between population and facilities, however, takes no account of the geographical distribution of high school rooms. A study of rural education in Minnesota in 1944 showed that the greater the distance from a student's home to a high school, the less chance that a graduate of Grade VIII would attend.[5] Deverell found that, in the Rocky Mountain School District of

TABLE 80. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NUMBER OF PERSONS 15-19 YEARS OF AGE AND NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOL CLASSROOMS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1950-51

Year	Number of High School Rooms			Number of Persons 15-19	Ratio
	Collegiates and Vocational Schools	Continuation and High Schools	Total		
1940-41	324	776	1,100	96,009	1:87
1945-46	304	732	1,036	80,944	1:78
1950-51	397	919	1,316	68,482	1:52

SOURCE: *Annual Reports* and unpublished data, Department of Education, and *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

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[5] Lowry Nelson, *Education of the Farm Population in Minnesota*, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Minnesota, Bulletin 377, June, 1944, p. 14.

Alberta, distance from high school facilities was an important factor in continuation.[6] For many families, according to Deverell, the financial burden of special transportation or separate maintenance for the student was more than could be spared.

It should be noted that in both the above studies, the findings pertained to areas in which school bus transportation was lacking or inadequate. It would seem logical to assume that, if reliable transportation is provided, the distance factor declines in significance. The length of bus route could presumably have some influence if students were required for chores or during busy seasons on the farm.

A rough index of the distribution of facilities can be obtained by determining the average area served by each high school unit. The settled area of Saskatchewan includes approximately 108,000 square miles. In 1951-52 this area was served by 592 high schools and continuation schools, 14 urban high school systems, 3 vocational high schools, and 1,900 one-room rural schools with some high school enrolment. These one-room rural schools were rejected earlier as inadequate high school facilities, but they constitute the only available facility in a number of areas. Including all these, each high school location in 1951 served an average area of 43 square miles, or a radius of approximately 7 miles. If one considers only schools with minimum high school facilities, however, the average area becomes 177 square miles, and the radius becomes 28 miles. With this as an average, and considering the uneven distribution of these high school units, it becomes a certainty that a substantial proportion of farm homes are far removed from adequate high school facilities.

In summary, the availability of high school facilities, in terms of the ratio of number of school rooms to potential high school students, increased substantially from 1941 to 1951. Geographical distribution of facilities, however, would appear to leave a number of families a considerable distance from school. To the extent that these families are not provided reliable school bus transportation, distance from school undoubtedly has an effect on continuation to organized high schools.

Curriculum and Teaching

Among some 750 Saskatchewan students who withdrew from high schools in 1948, two of the most frequently mentioned reasons for dropping out were (1) lack of interest in school work, and (2) curriculum.[7] Kind and quality of teaching as well as the curriculum itself would seem to be closely related to such responses.

Curriculum

Educators have suggested that more diverse curricula will have the effect of stimulating student interest and increasing retention. Diversifying curricula is generally interpreted as adding technical and vocational courses and fine arts courses such as art, music, and drama to the normal academic subjects offered in high school. To what extent is this factor related to retention in Saskatchewan?

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[6] A. F. Deverell, *Educational Needs of the Rocky Mountain School Division, Alberta,* unpublished thesis, Stanford University, Palo Alto, California, 1950.

[7] *Your Child Leaves School, op. cit.,* p. 116.

In the Canadian Research Committee study, Saskatchewan drop-outs ranked "lack of interest" first, with a smaller proportion specifically citing "unsuitability of curriculum." Establishing the line of demarcation between these types of response is rather difficult. Lack of interest could stem from lack of ability to handle the curriculum or from lack of interest generally in the learning process.

Saskatchewan school superintendents, however, do not consider curriculum a major deterrent to students' completing high school. In a questionnaire survey, two-thirds thought it was a factor only to "some extent," and 19 per cent thought it not a factor at all. Further, in ranking a list of probable reasons for drop-outs, superintendents rated this factor low on the scale.

While evidence from the students indicates shortcomings in the curriculum, it also appears to indicate that concern is most pronounced at the senior high school level. The following indicates the percentage of Saskatchewan male and female drop-outs per grade who expressed "unsuitability of curriculum" as a reason for withdrawing from school in the Canadian Research Committee study:

	Boys	*Girls*
Grades VII and VIII	27	8
Grade IX	25	9
Grade X	40	13
Grades XI and up	40	14

This evidence would substantiate the opinion that reasons for drop-outs were not well defined in the earlier years of high school, while in later years they were more specific.

Thirty-nine of the schools in the province in which high school students are enrolled offered vocational or technical courses in 1953-54. These included the three vocational high schools and six collegiates in the three major cities; ten collegiates in smaller urban centers; and twenty composite high schools operating under the School Act.[8] These schools represented an enrolment of approximately 11,500 students in 1953-54, 39 per cent of the total high school enrolment. Other than the composite high schools listed above, few of the schools operating under the School Act offer any vocational training. For purposes of comparison, they are considered here to offer primarily academic courses.

Vocational schools and collegiates have the same academic curriculum as School Act schools. Vocational schools permit specialization in non-academic subjects, while collegiates permit only a limited number of vocational or technical electives.

If diversity of curricula has a relationship to retention, it should be apparent in a comparison of retention in the three types of schools operating under the several Acts. It is assumed, of course, that proximity of student to high school may distort the analysis. Such a comparison is presented in Figure 31. In each case the enrolment in Grade IX is used as a base of 100, with retention indicated as

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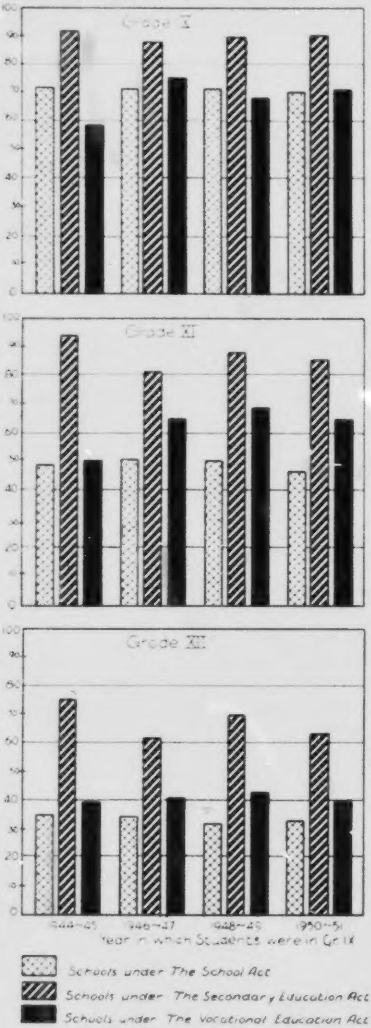
[8] See Appendix II. The School for the Deaf in Saskatoon, which also provides vocational training, is not included here.

FIGURE 31. PERCENTAGE RETENTION OF STUDENTS IN VARIOUS TYPES OF HIGH SCHOOLS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1944-45 TO 1952-53



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education, 1944-54.
Note: Each bar contains the proportion of students in Grade IX in the years listed who proceeded to Grades X, XI, and XII in the subsequent years. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

percentages of the base enrolled in subsequent grades.

Because of interchange of students among the types of schools it may appear fallacious to compare retention in this manner. For example, a student may leave a one-room country school after Grade IX and enroll in a vocational school in Grade X. The rural school is charged with a drop-out and the vocational school appears to retain a higher proportion of students than is actually the case. There are reasonable grounds for assuming, however, that movement of students from one type of school to another is motivated by a desire for a type of education not available at the school of origin. In this light, the drop-out would reflect dissatisfaction with curriculum.

From Figure 31 it is immediately apparent that schools operating under the Secondary Education Act (collegiates) maintain a substantially higher degree of retention throughout high school than do the other two types of school. Retention in these schools is also consistently higher than the provincial average.[9]

Retention from Grade IX to X in collegiates was 15 to 20 per cent higher than in other high schools for each of the years shown. Retention in small high schools (School Act schools) and vocational high schools from Grade IX to X exhibited little difference, both being very close to the provincial average except for the low retention recorded in vocational schools in 1944-45.

In Grade XI the spread between collegiates and small high schools became more marked. Collegiates here exhibited a retaining power well above the provincial average of 55 per cent and nearly double that of the small high schools. For three of the four years shown, the vocational school also exceeded the average and maintained a substantial margin over small high schools.

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[9] For all high schools, retention from Grade IX to later high school grades was shown to be approximately 75 per cent to Grade X, 55 per cent to Grade XI, and 40 per cent to Grade XII. See Figure 29.

In Grade XII the relative position of the collegiates was unchanged, although collegiate retention declined to about 65 per cent. Still well above the average, this figure was again almost double the retention of small high schools. Compared to Grade XI, the vocational schools suffered the sharpest drop, returning to approximately the provincial average of 40 per cent. The vocational schools' power of retention was only slightly better than that of the small high schools for Grade XII.

Retention by sex classification at the three types of schools was examined, but no significant differences were observed which appeared to be related to curriculum.[10] Retention of girls was higher than retention of boys generally, but that would appear to be true in any case.

Obviously, one of the basic requirements for a diverse curriculum is a minimum number of students per school building. Only when the enrolment is large enough to make efficient use of specialized teaching and costly equipment required for most technical and fine arts courses can their provision be justified. Average enrolments in the three classifications of schools compared in Figure 31 for the year 1951-52 were as follows:

Collegiates	392
Vocational High Schools	902
Small High Schools	8

Despite the fact that 18 composite high schools with enrolments averaging about 140 are included here with the small high schools, the large number of rural schools with small enrolments brings the average down to 8 students per school. It is thus apparent that diversification of curriculum for these students (about 60 per cent of the enrolment) is dependent first upon reorganization and centralization of high school facilities.

This comparison of the retentive power of different types of schools would appear to demonstrate that greater diversity in the high school curriculum results in a much higher degree of retention. Any such conclusion, however, must be tempered by possible qualifications. Since collegiates and vocational schools are located in urban centers, rural-urban differences which are not related to curricula may be reflected in the comparison. Availability of facilities, rural-urban social and economic differences, and other factors may contribute to the wide differences noted here. Also, this period (1944-1953) was one of growing urban population and declining rural population.

The vocational high schools also merit special mention. In terms of retention they are neither so high nor so consistent as collegiates, and only in retention to Grade XI are they substantially better than small high schools. This may be due to the fact that, since specialization in technical classes is permitted, a number of students attend one or two years for specific training and then drop out. Employment opportunities during the period reviewed were fairly good in urban centers, and students may have dropped out as soon as they had sufficient training to get a job. A high and variable rate of transfers into and out of these schools would account for the apparent inconsistencies appearing in the retention graph.

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[10] For tables showing retention at the three types of schools by sex classification, see Appendix XII.

All things considered, however, this analysis of the student retaining power of different types of schools would indicate that centralized high schools with modern equipment and a variety of classes would result in a substantially greater retention of students, providing that such facilities were adequately accessible to rural students.[11]

Teaching

The quality of teaching in schools has become a matter of growing concern to educators in recent years. There is increasing recognition of its basic importance to the entire educational process.

There can be little doubt that "lack of interest in school" and the failure of students to become properly oriented to the learning process is closely related to the ability, vision, and attitudes of the teacher. An unsatisfactory experience in the elementary grades may have lasting effects on a pupil's school career. Pallid or undiscriminating teaching at any level may destroy or change the student's objectives in school.

It has already been noted in Chapter VII that many rural schools in the province suffer from teaching of poor quality and inadequate standards. The objective conditions of the rural school, with its small enrolment and ungraded rooms, make tremendous demands upon teachers. The use of correspondence courses, with only nominal supervision by teachers lacking secondary qualifications, provides a narrow and unstimulating atmosphere for high school study. In addition, rural schools are usually staffed by teachers low in experience. The teacher survey reviewed in Chapter VII revealed that most Saskatchewan teachers begin their teaching careers in rural schools, progressing to urban centers as they gain experience. The resulting low level of experience and high rate of turnover in rural schools have serious implications for the quality of teaching. The total effect on retention of students is impossible to measure, but quality of teaching must be considered a basic factor.

The teacher shortage has been felt thus far primarily in one-room rural schools. As the greatly increased numbers of children born in the last decade reach high school age, however, high school staffing problems may become acute. Unless sufficient high school teachers are trained in the immediate future, the quality of teaching in high schools will decline as enrolments increase. Such a situation would tend to reduce further the high school's retaining power.

Closely related to both quality of teaching and the curriculum is the role of the teacher in vocational guidance. The motivation of a pupil to continue to high school or to complete high school may be directly affected by his awareness of vocational opportunities and the importance of education in preparation for a chosen vocational field. It is not suggested that every teacher should be prepared to give professional vocational guidance; however, in rural areas particularly it would seem vital that students be provided with information concerning vocational opportunities and the educational preparation required.

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[11] The value of vocational courses in the curriculum will be more fully dealt with in Chaper X, Vocational Education.

Socio-Economic Influences

Thus far we have considered factors directly associated with the school and its program. There are, however, a number of socio-economic influences related to retention which are at work in the schools' surrounding environment. Some are suggested by the reasons for withdrawal reported for the sample of Saskatchewan drop-outs studied by the Canadian Research Committee. Among the reasons frequently mentioned were the desire or opportunity to earn a living, the inadequacy of the family income, need for help at home, and the attitude of parents. It would seem that income level, family labour requirements and opportunities, and attitudes towards the value of education are all related to retention.

In this section, factors related to retention will be measured in an attempt to reveal some of the environmental influences and their impact on retention in the province. Retention and income levels in rural and urban areas will be compared, and retention by sex classification will be analysed. As well, the relationship between retention and the socio-economic status of the family will be examined.

Rural-Urban Comparison

Two factors already considered—the distance from home to high school and the availability of the type of high school most conducive to high retention (urban collegiates)—would indicate that retention differences do exist between rural and urban youth. To measure the differences, Department of Education records proved inadequate because enrolment statistics for high schools do not identify the proportions of rural and urban students. Therefore, the 1951 census was used, despite the limitation that the census lists attendance at school only by five-year age groups. Table 81 shows the proportions of rural and urban youth attending school in each of three age classifications.

In the 15-19 age group, the group most likely to include high school students, 48 per cent of the rural population and 55 per cent of the urban population were in school. In the 20-24 age group the percentages were rural 3, and urban, 7. The "Years of Schooling" classifications indicate that rural students were older on the average in any given grade than urban students. Twenty-five per cent of the rural 15-19 age group had eight years of schooling or less compared to twelve per cent of urban youth. A substantially higher proportion of urban youth than rural had 9-12 years of schooling.

To define further the difference between actual farm and non-farm students, Table 82 shows the proportions of two age groups attending school classified as farm, rural non-farm, and urban.[12] Farm

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[12] Farm population is defined in the census as those living on farms in the rural areas, regardless of occupation. A farm is defined as a holding on which agricultural operations are carried out and which is 3 acres or more; or has 1—3 acres and an agricultural income of over $250. Rural non-farm includes all others who live outside population centers of 1,000 or over.

TABLE 81. POPULATION ATTENDING SCHOOL BY AGE GROUPS AND LOCATION AND BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Age and Location	Population			Years of Schooling			
	Total	At School	Per Cent of Total	1-4 Years	5-8 Years	9-12 Years	13 Years +
				Per cent			
10-14 years							
Rural	56,358	54,451	97	25	72	3	—
Urban	17,257	16,375	95	19	75	6	—
15-19 years							
Rural	49,202	23,607	48	1	25	72	2
Urban	19,290	10,516	55	—	12	82	6
20-24 years							
Rural	40,072	1,360	3	—	6	37	57
Urban	22,541	1,539	7	—	2	32	66

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

TABLE 82. POPULATION ATTENDING SCHOOL, CLASSIFIED BY AGE GROUPS, FARM, RURAL NON-FARM, AND URBAN, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Age Group	Farm	Rural Non-Farm	Urban
	Per cent		
15-19	44.1	57.1	54.5
20-24	2.8	4.8	6.8

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

attendance here is seen to be significantly lower than for either of the other two 15-19 age groups. Similarly, the lowest proportion (2.8 per cent) of 20-24 year olds attending school were farm youth, compared to 4.7 per cent of non-farm rural and 6.8 per cent of urban youth.

Thus, considering the 15-19 year age group as high school students, rural non-farm students continue in school in greater proportion than urban or farm students. Considering the 20-24 year age group as those in school beyond the high school level, urban students continue in greatest proportion, followed by those of rural non-farm and farm origin.

To determine whether differences in income level between rural and

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urban families were related to differences in school attendance, an attempt was made to compare average incomes of farmers and urban wage earners (Table 83). Adjustments were made to the average farm income figures derived from the Census of Canada to make them more comparable to wages and salaries.

While there are considerations which reduce the comparability of these incomes, it is apparent that average farm income level is not apparently related to low rural high school attendance.

Averages reveal nothing, however, of the distribution of income; the existence of a high proportion of low incomes may be hidden by the inclusion of a small proportion of very high incomes. An analysis of census and other data in the Commission's report on Land Tenure indicated that, in 1950, approximately 58,000 farms in the province (52 per cent of total farms) yielded net incomes of $1,250 or less.[13] Census data with respect to Saskatchewan urban workers show that, among all wage earners 14 years of age and over, 47 per cent earned less than $1,500 in 1950. Since this includes many part time and casual employees, it might be more comparable to exclude those who worked less than 40 weeks of the year. If this is done, the proportion earning less than $1,500 becomes 32.5 per cent. It should be noted, too, that the measure applied here is $250 higher than that applied to farms. Thus, even though some distortion may result from considering data for a single year, it seems clear that

TABLE 83. AVERAGE ANNUAL LABOUR INCOME OF FARMERS AND WAGE EARNERS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-1954*

Year	Average Labour Income per Farm Operator†	Average Labour Income per Wage Earner‡
	$	$
1941	358	957
1946	1,748	1,449
1951	2,730	2,098
1952	2,929	2,287
1953	3,357	2,436
1954	1,246	2,465

SOURCE: J. S. Burton, *Sharing Saskatchewan's Dollar*, Saskatchewan Occupational Group Council, Regina, 1955.

* Although this analysis excludes non-farm proprietors, the great majority of Saskatchewan taxpayers are included in the two classifications shown.

† Realized net farm income minus a 5 per cent return on farm investment gives "Labour Income of Farmers." This figure is divided by the number of farm operators. Includes "income in kind."

‡ "Wages, Salaries, and Supplementary Labour Income" divided by the total number of wage earners.

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[13] See the Commission's report on Land Tenure, p. 122.

proportionately more farmers than urban wage earners fall in the lower income classification.

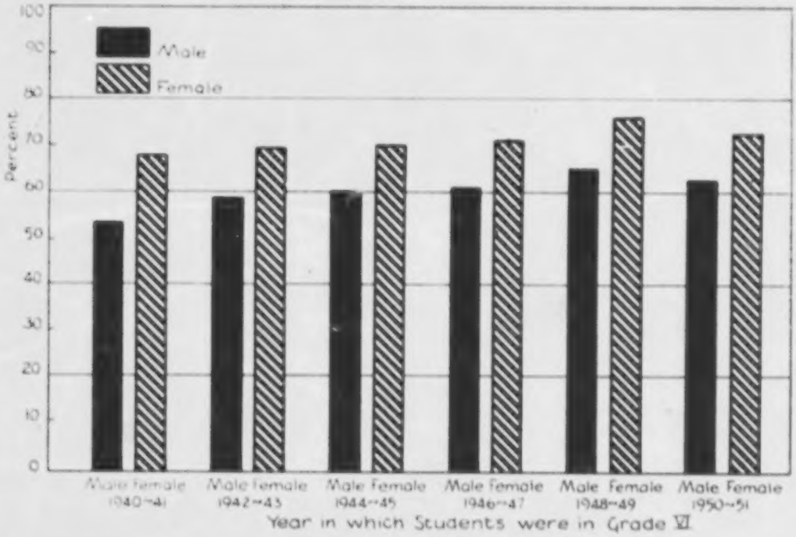
In addition, dollar figures do not fully show rural-urban differences in real income. In rural areas the per family cost of such services as education, roads, and electrification is considerably higher than in cities. The farm family not only pays higher taxes in terms of the quality of education services received, but also, in so far as farm families are required to maintain children away from home to attend an organized high school, additional demands are made upon farm income. This is true even where school units grant allotments for maintenance of students not conveyed, since evidence indicates the usual allotment is 50 cents per day per pupil. Such an amount only partially covers the cost of separate maintenance.

Male-Female Comparison

It is generally accepted that girls continue in school longer and in greater numbers than boys. An analysis of retention by sex classification in Saskatchewan schools generally confirms this belief, although some of the differences are quite small.

Considering first the continuation of Grade VI students to Grade IX, the proportion of girls enrolling in high school is substantially larger than the proportion of boys (Figure 32). Of students in Grade VI in 1940-41, 53 per cent of the boys and 68 per cent of the girls enrolled in Grade IX. Ten years later the proportions increased to 63 per cent of the boys and 73 per cent of the girls. Increases during the period were fairly constant, with boys showing somewhat more improvement than girls.

FIGURE 32. PERCENTAGE OF GRADE VI STUDENTS, MALE AND FEMALE, WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADE IX, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1950-51



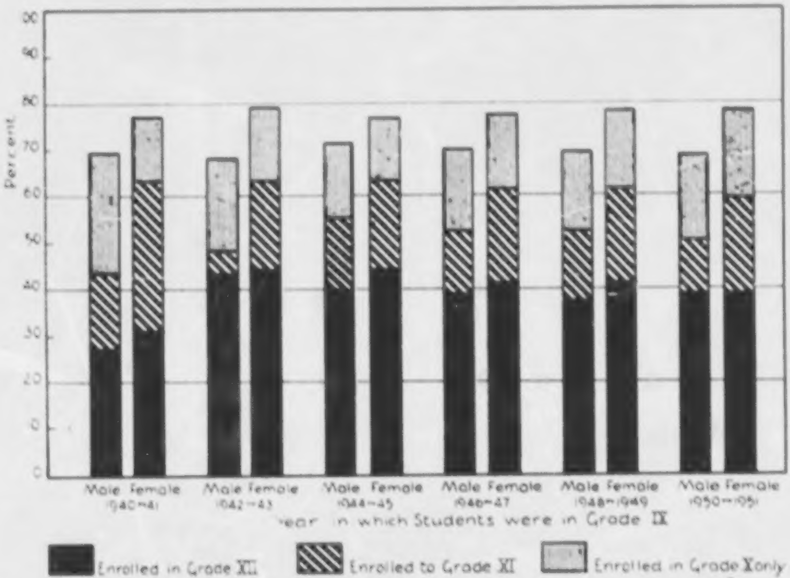
SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

Taking Grade IX as a base, girls maintain their higher rate of continuation to Grades X and XI (Figure 33). In recent years their margin over boys has been relatively stable at 8 to 10 per cent in both grades. In Grade XII, however, a new relationship emerges. Grade IX boys drop out in fairly uniform proportions in each subsequent high school grade. Proportionately more girls, however, drop out after Grade XI. As a result, retention to Grade XII over the ten-year period reviewed shows only slight differences between boys and girls.

Retention of boys to Grade XI was more variable in the early years of the decade 1940-1950. This instability may have been due to war conditions. From 1944 on, retention to Grade X for both boys and girls was quite stable; retention to Grade XI showed a slight decline for both. At the Grade XII level, the decline has been more apparent for girls than for boys.

In summary, substantially more girls (10 to 15 per cent) enter high school than do boys. Once in high school, however, girls and boys drop out in about the same proportions for the high school period as a whole. Boys drop out sooner, on the average, while the bulk of girls drop out between Grades XI and XII. The significant drop-out of girls after Grade XI suggests that many either are able to find jobs without completing high school, or they continue to short-term commercial or professional training which does not require Grade XII.

FIGURE 33. PERCENTAGE OF GRADE IX STUDENTS, MALE AND FEMALE, WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES X, XI, AND XII, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1950-51



SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

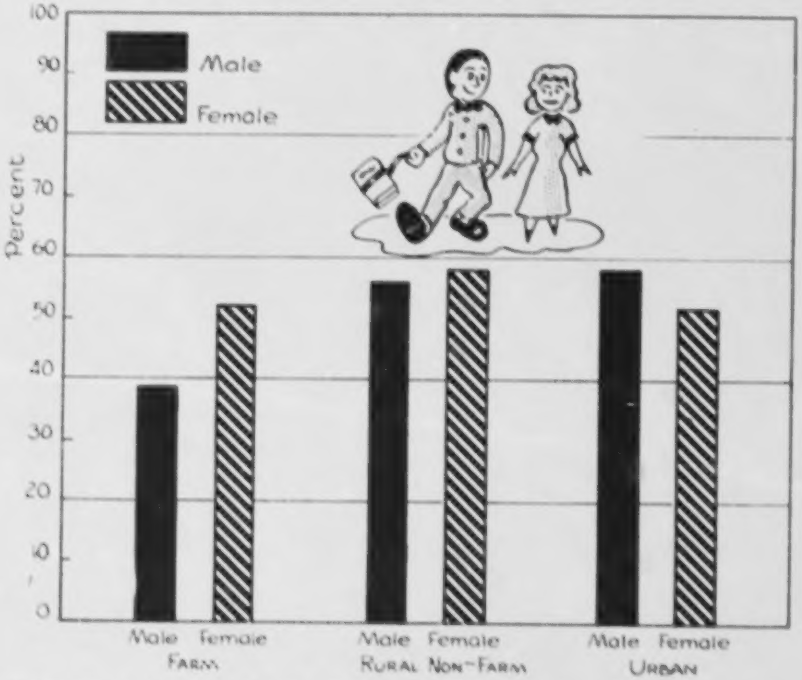
Age, Sex, and Location

It has been demonstrated that a lower proportion of farm youth than either rural non-farm youth or urban youth 15-19 years of age were attending school in 1951. Considering the total school population it was seen that a substantially higher proportion of girls than boys enter high school, but, once there, the proportions of boys and girls reaching Grade XII are approximately the same. A review of census data is useful in considering the combined factors of sex and rural-urban residence. As noted earlier, census data reveal attendance at school by five-year age groups. Considered here is the 15-19 age classification in 1951 (Figure 34).

The most striking fact revealed in Figure 34 is the low attendance of farm boys relative both to farm girls and to boys in other classifications. It appears that the low total farm attendance noted earlier is due almost entirely to the high proportion of farm boys not attending school. Girls in all classifications represent a fairly consistent rate of attendance, yet the spread between farm boys and urban boys is 20 per cent.

Such a division suggests that factors affecting the retention of farm youth in school discriminate

FIGURE 34. PERCENTAGE OF YOUTH 15-19 YEARS OF AGE ATTENDING SCHOOL, BY SEX AND LOCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951



SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics. (See Appendix I for supporting data.)

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particularly against boys. However, an examination of census figures discloses a qualifying factor: a large portion of farm girls listed in the 10-14 age group in 1946 disappeared from the 15-19 age group in 1951. The change was much greater than for boys (Table 84).

The population loss from one age group to the next in the five-year interval was proportionately greater for both boys and girls than the total farm population loss. In the case of girls, however, the loss was substantially larger—a net loss of almost one-third. One plausible explanation is that large numbers of farm girls leave school to go to urban centers to work some time after reaching 15 years of age. This must be so, because if they were away attending school they would, by census definition, still have been recorded as "farm." If they do go to the city to work, they actually represent drop-outs from the rural schools, yet they are recorded in the census as urban residents not attending school. The proportions of farm girls and urban girls shown in Figure 34, therefore, may not accurately reflect their retention. If, for example, girls had remained on the farm in the same proportion as boys and had included the same number attending school in 1951 as were listed in the census, the proportion attending school would have been 43.5 rather than 51.5 per cent.

With this qualification the implications for school retention are somewhat altered. Farm boys still emerge as the lowest proportion of the 15-19 year age group attending school, but the farm population as a whole in this age group attends school in substantially smaller numbers than the rural non-farm and urban youth. If one assumes that the proportion of urban girls attending school as shown in Figure 34 is depressed by the large influx of non-attending girls of farm origin, then there is little difference to note in rate of attendance between boys and girls in either urban or rural non-farm classifications.

Census figures also make possible comparison of groups classified according to sex, age, and location by years of schooling attained. Of the 15-19 age group as a whole, 44 per cent of the urban and non-farm rural youth had achieved 9-12 years schooling in 1951, compared with 30 per cent of the farm population in this age group. If one

TABLE 84. POPULATION LOSS, FARM MALES AND FARM FEMALES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946-1951

Year	Age Group	Farm Males	Farm Females	Total Farm Population
1946	10-14 years	23,886	22,855	443,499
1951	15-19 years	19,325	15,517	398,279
Change		−4,561	−7,338	−45,220
Per Cent		−19	−32	−10

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

considers only those not attending school, some general estimate can be made as to level of schooling at the time of drop-out (Table 85).

Previously it was noted that nearly two-thirds of farm boys 15-19 were not attending school. Of this number, more than 40 per cent had left school some time before completing Grade IX. More than 25 per cent of male and 19 per cent of female rural non-farm drop-outs fell in the same classification, while only 13 per cent of urban girls and 15 per cent of urban boys who left school had not completed at least one year of high school.

In summary, it is apparent that farm boys drop out of school earliest and at the highest rate of all groups classified by age, sex, and location. They thus account for the greater portion of rural-urban difference in school attendance. Farm girls would appear to drop out at only a slightly lower rate than farm boys, but they complete more years of school before dropping out. The level of education of drop-outs among farm girls and all rural non-farm youth is approximately the same. Rates of attendance in school for rural non-farm youth and urban youth are all close to 56 per cent, but, among drop-outs, urban youth achieve a higher level of education before leaving school.

Implications of this situation are that factors associated with low retention affect farm youth more than other sections of the population and that they operate particularly with respect to farm boys.

Socio-Economic Status of the Family

The socio-economic status of the family bears important relationships to school attendance. In a questionnaire survey of larger school unit superintendents in Saskatchewan, 55 per cent ranked it as the primary determinant in a student's completion of high school.[14] Findings of the Canadian Research Committee tend to confirm its importance in that they show a high relationship between retention and both economic level of the family and occupation of the parent.[15]

Two of the principal components which determine socio-economic status are income level and edu-

TABLE 85. PROPORTION OF 15-19 YEAR AGE GROUP WITH LESS THAN NINE YEARS' SCHOOLING, NOT ATTENDING SCHOOL, BY SEX AND LOCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Sex	Farm	Rural Non-Farm	Urban
	Per cent		
Male	41.1	25.6	15.4
Female	28.0	19.7	12.8

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

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[14] Questionnaire survey of larger school unit superintendents, 1953. (Appendix VI.)

[15] *Your Child Leaves School*, *op. cit.*, pp. 24-27.

cational attainment of parents. There are, of course, other ingredients interrelated with these aspects, particularly occupation of the parent and ethnic background. Occupation of the parent would appear to be important primarily as an index to income level and, to a degree, as a factor independently related to general attitudes towards education. Ethnic background may be a factor in certain local situations, but, since it usually operates with diminishing effect in generations succeeding the first immigration, it is not considered to be an important factor in Saskatchewan. This judgment is supported by a majority of Saskatchewan school superintendents who said there is no substantial difference among ethnic groups with respect to completion of high school education.[16]

The general findings of the Canadian Research Committee in 1948 showed these relationships between drop-outs and income status of the family for Canada as a whole:

1) There were fewer drop-outs from families with above average income. The percentage of drop-outs up to Grade X was four times greater in low income families than in high income families.

2) Three-fourths of students from families with above average incomes completed high school compared with one-fourth of students from the below average group.

3) Repetition of grades among students from low income families was about 10 per cent above the normal for the sample.

4) The proportion of graduates in the high income group proceeding to higher education was approximately seven times greater than for the low income group.

5) Students from the low economic group tended to take vocational subjects, while those from the high economic group tended to take academic courses.

With reference to the Saskatchewan sample included in the above study, the distribution of graduates and drop-outs as proportions of three broad economic groups is shown in Table 86. The relationship of economic status to continuation is sharply apparent. In the above average economic group, the

TABLE 86. DROP-OUTS AND GRADUATES AS PROPORTIONS OF GROUPS CLASSIFIED BY ECONOMIC STATUS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1948

Economic Status	Per Cent Graduates		Per Cent Drop-Outs	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Above average	73	83	27	17
Average	53	72	48	28
Below average	24	40	76	60

SOURCE: *Your Child Leaves School,* Second Report, Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, Toronto, 1950, pp. 116-117.

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[16] Questionnaire survey of larger school unit superintendents. (Appendix VI.)

great majority of both male and female students graduate, while in the below average group 60 per cent of the females and 76 per cent of the males drop out. The percentage of males graduating is lower than that of females in each economic classification, with the differential most marked in the average group. The high rate of drop-outs for the families of below average economic status in this sample, combined with the high rate of drop-outs among farm youth and the distribution of farm income observed earlier, suggests a strong relationship between economic status and continuation in school.

Closely associated with the income level-retention relationship is the correlation of the occupation of the parent with continuation in school. Considering once again the general Canadian sample in the Canadian Research Committee study, Table 87 shows the proportions of students coming from each occupational classification who dropped out of school in 1948. Proportionally fewer children of parents in professional, proprietor and manager, and clerical occupations dropped out than was true for other groups. Semi-skilled and unskilled labour groups accounted for the highest proportions, with farmers and skilled labour towards the center. Children of farmers show the most marked differential between males and females—63 per cent of the sons and 38 per cent of the daughters dropped out.

Considering only the drop-outs in the Saskatchewan sample, certain differences emerge (Table 88). Except for semi-skilled and unskilled labour categories, comparison indicates a lower proportion of drop-outs among both males and females. Within each sample, however, the same relative positions hold; skilled labour and farm classifications are closely grouped in the middle range of drop-outs.

TABLE 87. DROP-OUTS AS PROPORTIONS OF GROUPS CLASSIFIED BY OCCUPATION OF PARENT, CANADA, 1948

Occupation of Parent	Percentage of Drop-Outs	
	Male	Female
Professional	23	16
Proprietors and managers, general	41	33
Proprietors and managers, farm	63	38
Clerical	48	40
Skilled labour and foremen	61	53
Semi-skilled labour	73	63
Unskilled labour	80	74

SOURCE: *Your Child Leaves School*, Second Report, Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, Toronto, 1950.

TABLE 88. DROP-OUTS AS PROPORTIONS OF GROUPS CLASSIFIED BY OCCUPATION OF PARENT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1948

Occupation of Parent	Percentage of Drop-Outs	
	Male	Female
Professional	17	10
Proprietors and managers, general	35	26
Proprietors and managers, farm	45	27
Clerical	38	22
Skilled labour and foremen	48	33
Semi-skilled labour	78	44
Unskilled labour	79	64

SOURCE: *Your Child Leaves School,* Second Report, Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, Toronto, 1950.

These relationships differ somewhat from the findings of Gushaty in southern Alberta [17] and Deverell in western Alberta.[18] In both these studies the frequency of drop-outs among children of farmers was found to be quite similar to that among children of semi-skilled and unskilled labourers. Their findings showed all three of these classes grouped in the high drop-out range.

While occupation and income level are related, certain divergencies indicate that attitudes and objectives among occupational groups independently affect continuation in school. In Table 88 it will be noted, for example, that children of clerical workers account for fewer drop-outs than would be expected on the basis of average income level. At least part of this divergence may be due to attitudes stemming from the educational attainment of parents in this group.

Educational attainment of parents not only determines in part the socio-economic status of the family; it also tends to set the level of education for the children. It has been found that children of parents with little schooling tend to drop out of school early, while children of well-educated parents tend to complete high school and, in many instances, proceed to higher educational institutions. Gushaty discovered in southern Alberta, for example, that among parents of Grade XI and XII drop-outs, 85 per cent had not graduated from high school. A study on attitudes towards high school education in the State of Wisconsin indicated that the educational attainment of parents was highly correlated to attitudes towards high school education.[19]

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[17] M. Gushaty, "Analysis of the Causes of High School Drop-Outs in Southern Alberta, 1947-1951," unpublished thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1951.

[18] Deverell, *op. cit.*

[19] W. H. Sewell, D. G. Marshall, A. O. Haller, and W. A. DeHart, "Factors Associated with Attitudes toward High School Education in Rural Wisconsin," *Rural Sociology,* December, 1953.

In Saskatchewan, a large proportion of the adult population has had no high school education (Table 89). When classified according to farm, rural non-farm, and urban residence, percentages reveal that proportionately fewer farm adults have more than 8 years' schooling than either of the other classifications. The rural-urban difference is quite significant here. Thus, if educational attainment of parents is highly correlated to continuation in school, these figures would indicate a greater predisposition towards longer school attendance in urban centers than in rural areas.

TABLE 89. PROPORTION OF PERSONS 20 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER WITH 8 YEARS OR LESS OF SCHOOLING, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Location	Per Cent with 8 Years or Less of Schooling
Farm	69
Rural non-farm	58
Urban	43
Total Population	57

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1951.

In summary, conclusive findings on the relationship between socio-economic status of the family and continuation in school will have to await more detailed study in the Saskatchewan environment. On the basis, however, of the limited Saskatchewan sample studied by the Canadian Research Committee, and on the basis of findings in Alberta and elsewhere, it is reasonable to conclude that a significant relationship exists. These facts stand out:

1) The economic status of almost 60,000 farm operators in the province—more than half—is below that necessary for a minimum adequate standard of living.

2) Children from Saskatchewan families of below average economic status drop out of high school at approximately three times the rate of drop-outs from the above average group.

3) Children of Saskatchewan farmers drop out of high school at a higher rate than do children of other proprietors and managers.

4) Children of low-skill labourers drop out at the highest rate both in Saskatchewan and in the nation as a whole.

5) Nearly 60 per cent of Saskatchewan's adult population has attended school for eight years or less. Adults on farms have attained fewer years of schooling, on the average, than have adults in small rural population centers or adults in cities. When compared on a rural-urban basis, substantially more rural adults than urban adults have not attended school beyond Grade VIII.

IMPLICATIONS OF LOW RETENTION

Low retention has serious implications both for society as a whole and for the drop-outs themselves. A complex economy requires understanding and intelligent direction if it is to serve the interests of the majority. The social organization of rural Saskatchewan, thrust out of gear by rapid changes in the rural economy, needs the co-operative efforts of an aware and responsible citizenry to set it right.

Machines, whether they be on the farm or in the factory, demand skills. All these major requirements of growth and change heighten the importance of the educational attainment of people. What are the implications of low retention for social progress? Do drop-outs find satisfactory employment? This section will indicate some of the answers to these questions.

Implications for Social Progress

If it were not so fundamental to the future progress—even existence—of mankind, it would be trite to say that never before have the times demanded more rational behaviour and clear thinking than they do today. Whether one considers the problems of the rural community or the staggering potential of international tensions, their ultimate resolution, if one believes in social progress, depends upon increasing the social understanding and civic responsibility of people. To meet this challenge, society must rely in large part on the education of its youth. As stated by a consultant to the Commission:

> I think it does not require too much imagination to associate the wars, prejudices, and social instability of the last fifty years and the insanity, neuroses, and need for psychiatric services in our immediate environment today with the failure of the educational system to prepare youth to live adjusted lives in a world whose chief characteristic is change.

Quality of education is certainly one of the most important factors in preparing youth to participate in and contribute to social progress. Yet, however high the quality, education must become the property of the great majority before social progress will be fully served. Retention then becomes a primary problem, for if youth do not remain in school, the educational groundwork necessary for the assumption of social responsibility will rarely be acquired. When one adds to this the fact that parents tend to perpetuate their level of educational attainment in their children, the social implications of low retention become greater still.

In a province where 57 per cent of the adults have no more than eight years of schooling, increasing the retention of pupils must proceed hand in hand with raising the educational level of those who have left school. Adult education has a vital part to play here, since it will tend not only to broaden the understanding of that part of the population beyond school age, but also to create more favourable conditions for increasing the school attendance of youth. In other words, any raising of standards among parents generally will tend to be reflected in the educational attainment of their children.

In its effects on social progress, the problem of retention is interrelated with a host of other factors; standards in one cannot be raised without boosting standards in the others. It is intended here only to emphasize the serious implications that the extremely low level of educational attainment in Saskatchewan has for progress towards broad social objectives.

Employment of Drop-Outs

The only recent comprehensive Canadian study of employment relative to years of schooling is that conducted by the Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education in 1948.[20] Although changes have taken place in the economy in the intervening period, the Committee's data reveal trends in distribution of youth to employment which should be substantially valid today.

The total sample included in the Committee's study was large (approximately 26,000) and was distributed throughout Canada. Candidates for employment were classified in three groups according to years of schooling: graduates from high school; late drop-outs (Grade X or above); and early drop-outs (Grades VII, VIII, or IX). Their proportional distribution to various employment categories is shown in Table 90.

Among boys, more than half the graduates obtained their first employment in either office work or skilled trades (including apprentices); another quarter went to work in primary industry or sales; and the remainder were accounted for by small proportions in labour and low-skill categories. Late drop-outs found employment in trades and primary industry in almost the same proportions as graduates; relatively fewer went into office and sales work; and more went into low-skill occupations. Six per cent were unemployed. Among early drop-outs, nearly half were either employed in low-skill occupations or unemployed, while only one-fourth were accounted for by skilled trades, office, and sales work combined. Most of the remainder were in primary industry. The highest rate of unemployment was recorded by the early drop-out group.

Among girls, 59 per cent of the graduates were initially employed in offices; 8 per cent in personal services; and none were unemployed. Late drop-outs were more evenly distributed among various occupations, but 8 per cent were unemployed. Half of the early drop-outs were employed in personal service or factory occupations, and 16 per cent were unable to find work.

These figures indicate that, in 1948, drop-outs—particularly early drop-outs—had greater difficulty finding employment than did graduates, and that relatively more drop-outs were distributed among the lower income occupational groups. While changes in the economy might well cause some shifts in these proportional distributions, it is reasonable to assume that the relative positions of the three groups would not be appreciably different.

Since Saskatchewan is predominantly rural, employment opportunities differ. To compare employment of drop-outs in the province with the total picture, Table 91 was prepared. Here, all drop-outs (early and late) contained in the general sample are combined, both for Canada as a whole and for Saskatchewan.[21]

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[20] *Your Child Leaves School, op. cit.*

[21] The Canadian Research Committee study divided its sample into a general sample and a selected city sample. The larger population centers are not represented in the general sample. In the Saskatchewan general sample, Regina, Saskatoon, and Moose Jaw are excluded.

TABLE 90. DISTRIBUTION TO INITIAL EMPLOYMENT OF A SAMPLE OF GRADUATES AND DROP-OUTS, CANADA, 1948

	Per Cent Distribution of Boys								
Years of Schooling	Trades	Office	Primary Industry	Sales	Misc.*	Labour	Factory	Transport and Commerce	Unemployed
Graduates	27	26	16	10	9	6	3	3	—
Late drop-outs	26	12	18	8	8	12	6	4	6
Early drop-outs	17	4	23	4	4	19	9	8	12

	Per Cent Distribution of Girls					
	Office	Misc.*	Sales	Personal Service	Factory	Unemployed
Graduates	59	19	13	8	1	—
Late drop-outs	34	14	19	19	6	8
Early drop-outs	6	15	15	36	12	16

SOURCE: *Your Child Leaves School*, Second Report, Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, Toronto, 1950, p. 29.

* Included here are such jobs as armed service, R.C.M.P., teaching on temporary licence; girls who marry are included in this classification.

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TABLE 91. DISTRIBUTION OF A SAMPLE OF DROP-OUTS TO VARIOUS CLASSIFICATIONS OF EMPLOYMENT, SASKATCHEWAN AND CANADA, 1948

Sex and Location	Office	Sales	Trades	Primary Industry	Factory	Transport and Commerce	Personal Service	Labour	Misc.	Unemployed
	Per cent distribution									
Boys										
National sample	8	6	22	21	7	6	2	15	4	9
Provincial sample	3	5	10	48	2	6	2	15	3	6
Girls										
National sample	22	17	4	2	9	4	26	2	3	11
Provincial sample	7	9	1	1	0	2	58	3	8	11

SOURCE: *Your Child Leaves School*, Second Report, Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, Toronto, 1950, pp. 102-103 and 116-117.

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The importance of farming in the Saskatchewan economy is immediately apparent from the fact that nearly half of male drop-outs in the province found employment in primary industry. Less than half as many found their way into office, trades, and factory employment combined. Other classifications reflected little difference.

Among female drop-outs in Saskatchewan, the majority (58 per cent) entered personal service occupations, while the remainder were scattered among the other classifications. Again, the lack of industrialization in the province is reflected in the comparative employment. Nationally, much larger proportions of female drop-outs found employment in factory, office, and sales work than was true in Saskatchewan. Unemployment figures for the two groups, however, were the same (11 per cent).

The variety of employment opportunities for drop-outs in Saskatchewan would thus appear to be much more limited for both boys and girls than is true for the nation as a whole. With this major difference, the previously observed relationships between employment and level of education are borne out in Saskatchewan. Table 92 shows the distribution of drop-outs and graduates to employment classifications. Again, the sample excludes respondents in the largest cities of the province.

It becomes immediately obvious that if boys, particularly those who drop out early, cannot be assimilated into the primary industry of farming they have little recourse but to join the ranks of unskilled labour. Girls who graduate from school have reasonable opportunity in business, but drop-outs from the lower high school grades are found predominantly in the personal service field.

For both boys and girls, the lower the educational attainment, the more likelihood of employment in primary industry, and labour for the former, and personal service for the latter, and also the higher the incidence of unemployment. With limited opportunities for urban employment in Saskatchewan, there can be little doubt that higher levels of education must be achieved in order that candidates have ample opportunity for successful competition in employment fields. Any contraction in the present high level of labour opportunity, coupled with reduction in opportunity in farming, will critically handicap the job possibilities for Saskatchewan boys with low level education.

The *Saskatchewan Federation of Labour*, in its brief to the Commission, presented evidence to show that a majority of its members had farm backgrounds. The Federation's submission further held that farm people have migrated to the cities, not primarily because they were attracted to urban living, but because they had to find employment. Every indication points to a continuing decline in farm employment. Thus, in a period when their farm opportunities are declining, many farm youths are failing to prepare themselves for any kind of skilled urban employment. Many, moreover, leave school so early that their employment opportunities are probably limited to unskilled labour categories.

TABLE 92. EMPLOYMENT OF SASKATCHEWAN STUDENTS ON WITHDRAWAL FROM SCHOOL, 1948

Sex and Years of Schooling	Office	Sales	Trades	Primary Industry	Factory	Transport and Commerce	Personal Service	Labour	Misc.	Unemployed
	Per cent distribution									
Boys										
Graduates*	21	10	15	29	2	2	1	8	12	0
Grade XI and up	8	8	12	32	2	6	0	16	12	4
Grade X	3	6	16	45	3	4	3	12	2	6
Grade IX	3	4	7	60	1	5	3	11	3	3
Grades VII and VIII	0	2	5	50	1	7	2	22	0	11
Girls										
Graduates*	23	17	1	3	0	4	27	0	25	0
Grade XI and up	13	21	0	4	0	8	31	4	8	11
Grade X	10	13	3	0	2	0	50	0	12	10
Grade IX	9	2	2	2	0	0	61	3	9	12
Grades VII and VIII	0	2	0	0	0	0	81	3	3	11

SOURCE: *Your Child Leaves School*, Second Report, Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, Toronto, 1950, pp. 116-117.

* This analysis includes only those who went into immediate employment and does not include those graduates who went on to further training.

SUMMARY

The need for an adequate minimum education, whether considered from the point of view of the individual or of society as a whole, has never been greater than it is today. Youth must be prepared to contribute to social progress, to understand and adapt themselves to a changing environment, to acquire new skills, and to be able to make full use of new social and economic techniques. Modern circumstances require that the minimum acceptable standard be the completion of a high school education.

An analysis of school attendance, even when qualified by the net loss of pupils through migration from the province, shows an extremely low level of continuation in school from Grade VI through high school. One-fourth of the Grade VI students drop out before entering high school; one in three enter Grade XII. Of those who enter high school, only 40 per cent reach Grade XII. There has been improvement over time in the proportion entering high school, but, once there, the proportion reaching Grade XII appears stable. It has increased, therefore, only to the degree that it has been affected by population loss.

Since more than half of Saskatchewan's children of school age live on farms, availability of high school facilities is a factor related to retention. The ratio of available space (high school rooms) to school age population increased substantially in the decade 1941-1951, partly because additional rooms were made available and partly because the population declined. In terms of distance from home to school, however, availability of adequate high school facilities has not improved. The average radius served by each high school building (excluding one-room rural schools) is approximately 28 miles, assuming ideal distribution. Thus, since students from many farm families are not conveyed to schools, the family's only recourse is to maintain the students in town or allow them to drop out of school. This factor is most significant when related to the inadequacy of incomes among a large proportion of farm families. Even though school units often contribute part of the cost of maintenance for students not conveyed, the cost is beyond the means of many farm families. These facts indicate the need for a review of existing policy in the Department and among school units to the end that a high school education be more equally available to all.

A comparison of retention of pupils by different types of schools in Saskatchewan demonstrates that diversity of curriculum (inclusion of non-academic electives) results in a substantially higher retention than does a straight academic course. Schools operating under the Secondary Education Act (collegiates) retain two-thirds of their Grade IX students to Grade XII; small high schools retain only one-third. Comparisons of retention in the intervening grades show similar relationships.

The difficulties involved in diversifying high school curricula by making vocational and fine arts courses available to rural students is apparent when average enrolments are considered. Urban collegiates in 1951-52 had average enrolments of 392; small high schools had 8. Diversification of curricula for the 60 per cent of high school students served by small high schools thus depends first upon some kind of centralization of facilities.

On the basis of this analysis, it is apparent that an important method of increasing retention lies in the field of making available to rural students vocational and fine arts electives. Such changes in curriculum would also serve to help prepare farm youth for urban occupations and new environments.

To increase the motivation of pupils to continue their education, teachers should be prepared to make students aware of vocational opportunities and the educational requirements as a part of the late elementary curriculum. While they could not be expected to provide professional vocational guidance, they could do much to increase the pupils' understanding of employment problems and opportunities and the value of schooling in preparation for various vocational pursuits.

Changes in curriculum alone will have little real effect unless they are accompanied by higher standards of teaching. Buildings and equipment can be put to proper use only in proportion to the ability, vision, and understanding of the teacher. The present quality of teaching under the difficult conditions of the rural school is generally low due to the short training, low experience, and high rate of turnover among rural teachers. Since student attitudes towards school develop in the elementary grades, quality of teaching is of paramount importance throughout the grades. Raising the standards of teaching must take place concurrently with other improvements designed to increase the retentive power of the schools.

Schools, teachers, and curriculum provide only part of the answer to the problem of pupil retention. Socio-economic influences on the pupil and his family also have their impact on continuation in school. These factors are revealed in rural-urban differences, male-female comparison, and differences in income level, occupation, and educational attainment among families.

While attendance at school is substantially higher among urban youth 15-19 years of age than among farm youth, a comparison between average incomes of farmers and urban wage earners reveals only a slight relationship. Since the war, average farm income has been somewhat higher than the average of urban wages per worker.

Nevertheless, it appears that urban incomes are more evenly distributed than farm incomes. Nearly 60,000 farms had net incomes of $1,250 or less in 1951, while, among wage earners who worked 40 weeks or more, 32.5 per cent earned less than $1,500. Thus, even though some distortion may result from considering data for a single year, it seems clear that proportionately more farmers than urban wage earners fall in the lower income classification. Further differences in real income exist between urban worker and farmer since the farmer pays more for services such as education, roads, and electrification. The cost of maintaining children away from home to attend high school is only one example of the higher costs of farm living.

Comparisons in retention according to sex show that 10 to 15 per cent more girls continue to high school than do boys. Once in high school, however, girls and boys reach Grade XII in about the same proportions. Boys drop out sooner, on the average, while the largest drop-out of girls occurs between Grades XI and XII.

When comparisons are made by both sex and rural-urban locations, it is clear that farm boys drop out earliest and in the greatest numbers. Farm girls drop out at the next highest rate, but they complete more years of schooling than farm boys. Other boys and girls, whether in cities or villages, attend school in about equal proportions (56 per cent), although among those who drop out, city youth attain a higher level of education before leaving school.

Factors associated with low retention thus affect farm youth more than other sections of the population and operate particularly with respect to farm boys. The low level of income on a large number of farms, combined with the tradition of farm sons' contributing to the labour requirements in farm work may be important factors here. With the degree of mechanization on most farms, there would seem to be little economic justification for farm sons' leaving school to help with the farm work, although in mixed farming the year-round labour requirements are higher than in straight grain farming. In any event, where the son is employed on an uneconomic farm unit, it is doubtful that his labour is productive enough to earn more than a scant income.

The lack of "practical" electives in rural high schools may discourage many farm boys from continuing where parental encouragement is lacking. Distance from home to school undoubtedly is a deterrent as well for both farm boys and farm girls.

A strong relationship between the socio-economic status of the family and school attendance is indicated by available data on Saskatchewan, although further detailed studies are needed. It has been established that a large proportion of Saskatchewan farms have low incomes and that farm youth drop out of school in greater proportion than urban youth. An analysis of other data indicates these facts:

1) Children of Saskatchewan families of below average economic status drop out of school at approximately three times the rate of drop-outs from the above average group.

2) Children of Saskatchewan farmers drop out of school at a higher rate than do children of other proprietors and managers.

3) Children of low-skill labourers drop out at the highest rate.

4) Nearly 60 per cent of Saskatchewan's adult population has had no high school education. Among urban adults, the proportion is 43 per cent, compared to 69 per cent of farm adults and 58 per cent of rural non-farm adults.

When one considers these facts in relation to the employment opportunities for drop-outs revealed in the Canadian Research Committee's study and other factors, the implications are alarming. The low educational attainment of farm parents, the level of income of farm families, the lack of rural facilities for a diversified high school curriculum, and the low teaching standards in rural schools all encourage a perpetuation of the high rate of rural drop-outs. Farm employment opportunities are diminishing and rural youth are seeking work in cities and other provinces. Youth with low educational attainment tend to be employed in low-skill labour occupations. If they remain there, indications are that their children, like themselves, will leave school early. The cycle thus tends to operate regressively, since the highest rate of drop-outs occurs among children of low-skill labourers.

These implications point up sharply the need for an effective adult education program to raise the standards of those who have left school. Obviously, such a program cannot correct the economic factors which deter school attendance. However, by changing parental attitudes towards the values of education and by demonstrating the manifold advantages of an adequate education, progress would be made towards breaking the cycle. The need for such a program is equally vital for farmer and for urban worker, for immigrant and for emigrant alike.

To provide youth with vocational and cultural skills, whether they remain on the farms or move to urban centers, to prepare more young people for professional training, to better equip all youth to earn and enjoy their full share of material and cultural benefits, and, above all, to create the conditions necessary for accelerated social progress, the minimum standards of educational attainment must be raised to high school graduation. To make progress towards this goal will require concurrent approaches on several fronts:

1) Improving the availability of high school to the three-fourths of the school age population living outside urban centers;

2) Raising the quality of teaching in all grades and in all schools so that pupils are motivated to remain in school;

3) Making available to rural students opportunities for vocational and fine arts courses;

4) Providing vocational guidance, both through the teachers and through vocational guidance counsellors;

5) Developing an adult education program of much wider scope and appeal to involve the maximum number of those who have left school before completing their high school education;

6) Facilitating the development of family sized farms to raise the income level of families on uneconomic farm units.

CHAPTER IX

Continuation to Higher Education

Higher education is largely beyond the scope of this report. The Commission's concern in this chapter is limited to certain implications for higher education which emerge from the preceding study of retention in high school. Are the institutions of higher education training sufficient young men and women to meet the main needs for professional personnel in the province? Is the retention of students through high school so low that the University and Teachers College are supplied with too few candidates? What are the factors which tend to prevent the continuation of more students to higher education? Some of the answers to these questions will be sought in this chapter.

Indications of the demand for professional personnel will be examined first, followed by a description of some recent trends in continuation to higher education. Finally, factors related to continuation will be discussed.

Demand for Professional Personnel

Demand for personnel meeting established standards of professional competence continues to increase. To this in recent years has been added a demand in some lines of employment for persons with specialized training of less than full professional standard. The discussion here is divided, therefore, into demand for semi-professional and for professional skills.

Demand for Semi-Professional Skills

A growing number of occupations in government, industry, and commerce require training beyond high school but less than a degree course in university. In industry and engineering, such personnel are known generally as technicians, and it is in heavily industrialized areas that their use is best known. Essentially, the technician has sufficient training to execute routine laboratory or administrative work, thus freeing highly trained personnel for tasks demanding their specialized skills.

The lack of industrialization in Saskatchewan minimizes the need for this type of semi-professional skill, but demand for service technicians in many fields exceeds the supply. Hospital laboratory technicians, X-ray technicians, nurses' aides, psychiatric aides, and accountants are all established as essential semi-professional workers. In such fields as administration, electronics, refrigeration, and business machines, standards are not so well established, but indications are that the need is increasing. Dental aides, oil field technicians, graphic artists, highway supervisors, and farm service technicians are only beginning to appear in the province, and needs in some of these fields are rapidly increasing. As further industrial development occurs new technical needs are certain to appear.

No detailed evidence is available as to demand for technicians in the several fields. A great deal of study will be necessary, not only to determine demand, but also to determine educational requirements for any jobs for which training courses are devised. It can only be suggested here that a demand exists for semi-professional personnel and will probably increase.

Demand for Professional Skills

As an indication of the position of professional workers in Saskatchewan, the Commission endeavoured to ascertain the demand and shortages, if any, among departments of the Provincial Government.[1] In 1953, 39 government departments and agencies employed 892 university graduates. It is estimated that approximately 39 per cent of this total will have to be replaced by new graduates by 1958. In addition, some 275 new positions are planned if sufficient graduates are available. Thus, over the five-year period, the provincial civil service will require approximately 625 university graduates—an average of 125 per year.

Of 32 departments or agencies requiring university graduates, 12 indicated that present supply was inadequate for their needs, while the remainder indicated no difficulty in obtaining sufficient numbers. The kinds of graduates in short supply for the civil service were commerce, social workers, students to article for chartered accountants, electrical engineers, veterinarians, agriculturalists, administrators, community planning engineers, petroleum engineers, civil engineers, and public health and medical personnel.

The provincial civil service employs only a small portion of university graduates, the majority finding employment in industry and commerce. Table 93 shows the proportional distribution by type of employment of 1954 graduates of four colleges at the University of Saskatchewan.

If it is assumed that the demand-supply relationship between the Provincial Government and qualified professional personnel extends to other employers as well, then a general shortage exists in most fields. Evidence presented to the Commission by professional associations tends to confirm this conclusion.[2] The shortage can be attributed to two factors: the shortage of students, and the emigration of graduates to other parts of Canada and the United States. Table 94 shows the proportion of graduates of four colleges remaining in the province in 1954.

Two factors undoubtedly contribute to the apparent contradiction of graduates emigrating from a province with a shortage of qualified professional personnel. In specific fields, the University may have more graduates than the province can absorb, while in others, few or none. As well, income possibilities in a number of professional classifications are more attractive in some areas outside the province. Relative income possibilities would appear to be a particularly strong factor in the emigration of engineers.

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[1] Questionnaire survey of government departments and agencies, 1954. (See Appendix XIII.)

[2] Questionnaire survey of professional associations in Saskatchewan, 1954. (See Appendix XIII.)

TABLE 93. DISTRIBUTION OF GRADUATES OF FOUR COLLEGES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN BY TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT, 1954

	College			
Type of Employment	Engineering	Agriculture	Nursing	Pharmacy
	Per cent			
Provincial civil service	10	13	10	2
Federal civil service	10	17	—	4
Postgraduate	5	13	—	9
Private	—	21	—	10
Industry or commercial	60	17	90	75
Other	15	8	—	—
Unknown	—	11	—	—

SOURCE: Questionnaire survey of colleges of the University of Saskatchewan, 1954. (See Appendix XIII.)

TABLE 94. DISTRIBUTION OF GRADUATES OF FOUR COLLEGES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN BY DESTINATION, 1954

College	Saskatchewan	Outside Saskatchewan
	Per cent	
Engineering	36	64
Agriculture	91	9
Nursing	85	15
Pharmacy	93	7

SOURCE: Questionnaire survey of colleges of the University of Saskatchewan, 1954.

In some other fields of professional activity in the province, the need for trained personnel is only beginning to be felt. Excellent beginnings have been made in this province in stimulating community cultural activity and interest by the Saskatchewan Arts Board and other adult education agencies. The demand is growing for persons professionally qualified in the fine arts to assist community development. As technology advances further, creating more leisure time, the opportunities and responsibilities in this field will multiply. The raising of cultural standards is a challenging task, although much organizational groundwork remains to be done. The demand for professional personnel in the arts appears destined to expand greatly.

It can be concluded from this brief survey that demand both for semi-professional and professional skills in the province is higher than at any time in the past. Increased technology, expanding social services, and the needs arising from the growing leisure time of people all support this conclusion.

Trends in Continuation to Higher Education

With the growing demand for professional and semi-professional skills, combined with the low retention of pupils in high school, it becomes pertinent to examine the trends in continuation to higher education. Are more Saskatchewan students preparing themselves for professional careers?

Considering Grade XII graduates as the maximum potential, enrolments at higher educational institutions provide one indication of the degree of continuation. Unfortunately the number of Grade XII graduates is not available directly from Department of Education reports because Grade XI and XII completions are lumped together. An estimate is possible, however, by applying the proportion of completions for Grades XI and XII combined to the Grade XII enrolment for any given year. That proportion, averaged over five years, approximates 60 per cent. This estimate of high school graduates for four years is contained in Table 95. It will be seen that these estimates for the period are quite stable.

To compare the number of high school graduates with first year enrolments in advanced institutions, Table 96 was prepared. Enrolments are expressed in total numbers and as percentages of high school graduates. It will be seen that 20 to 25 per cent of the graduates enter the University, approximately 20 per cent enter Teachers' College and another 13 per cent enroll in nursing.

A slight increase in freshman enrolment at the University over the four year period apparently resulted from an increase in the proportion of graduates proceeding to higher education, since little loss is observed in other classifications. The total of nearly 60 per cent in 1953-54 indicates a fairly high rate of continuation.

TABLE 95. GRADE XII ENROLMENTS AND GRADUATIONS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1950-51 TO 1953-54

Item	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54
Enrolment	4,865	4,797	4,800	4,890
Graduates*	2,919	2,878	2,880	2,934

SOURCE: *Annual Reports* of the Department of Education.

* Assumed to be 60 per cent of enrolments.

TABLE 96. FIRST YEAR ENROLMENTS AT PROFESSIONAL TRAINING INSTITUTIONS, AND ENROLMENTS AS PROPORTIONS OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1950-51 TO 1953-54*

Institution	1950-1951		1951-1952		1952-1953		1953-1954	
	Enrolment†	Per Cent Grade XII Graduates	Enrolment	Per Cent Grade XII Graduates	Enrolment	Per Cent Grade XII Graduates	Enrolment	Per Cent Grade XII Graduates
University of Saskatchewan‡	636	21.7	556	19.3	658	22.8	750	25.6
Teachers College	625	21.4	545	18.9	548	19.0	586	20.0
Nursing Schools**	388	13.3	388	13.5	388	13.5	388	13.2
Total	1,649	56.4	1,489	51.7	1,594	55.3	1,724	58.8

SOURCE: Unpublished data, Registrar's Office, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon; *Annual Reports*, Department of Education; and Saskatchewan Registered Nurses Association, Regina.

* Number of graduates estimated at 60 per cent of Grade XII enrolment.

† Students originating from high schools outside the province have not been deducted. It is assumed that non-Saskatchewan residents enrolled do not exceed the number of Saskatchewan high school graduates who enroll elsewhere.

‡ This includes students enrolled in first year university but does not include School of Agriculture students or any students taking less than three classes. It does include first year students registered at the University but attending junior colleges.

** Total Grade XII graduates enrolling in seven hospitals March, 1950 to March, 1954 was 1,466. The average is used here since the annual breakdown was not available.

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The distribution of students according to urban, rural non-farm and farm origin reveals some significant differences. Table 97 shows the proportion of farm and non-farm (rural non-farm plus urban) students among university freshmen over a four-year period. The proportion of farm students enrolling has increased gradually since 1950, but accounted for just over one-third in 1953-54. Among students at the teachers college, however, the distribution is quite different. Of a sample of 1948-49 teachers college graduates, 72 per cent were of farm origin. Of the remainder, 23 per cent were from small urban centers and only 5 per cent came from cities. Thus, the proportions are reversed.

Males continue to the University in much greater proportion than females, while the reverse is true at Teachers College. Three-fourths of first year university students are male; three-fourths of teacher candidates are female. When those entering nursing are included, it can be seen that candidates for professional training are predominantly female.

Thus, from a low but relatively stable supply of high school graduates, more than half are being recruited to professional training. The number of teaching and nursing candidates has been stable in recent years, while university enrolment has shown an increase.

Census figures throw additional light on the disposition of students who proceed to training beyond high school. In 1951, there were approximately 68,000 young people 15-19 years of age in Saskatchewan. Half were in school; half were not. Of the total, 2 per cent had completed 13-16 years of schooling—that is, had completed at least one year's work beyond high school. Under census definition this would include vocational as well as professional training. Most of the 2 per cent were among those still attending school (Table 98).

TABLE 97. FARM — NON-FARM DISTRIBUTION OF UNIVERSITY FRESHMEN, SASKATCHEWAN, 1950-51 TO 1953-54*

	1950-51		1951-52		1952-53		1953-54	
	Number	Per cent of Total	Number	Per cent of Total	Number	Per cent of Total	Number	Per cent of Total
Farm	137	29	157	37	176	35	224	36
Non-farm	333	71	272	63	331	65	394	64
Total	470		429		507		618	

Source: Unpublished data, Registrar's Office, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon.

* The total of university students excludes the junior colleges previously referred to.

TABLE 98. PROPORTION OF YOUTH ATTENDING SCHOOL, AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Age Group	Total	Attendance Status	Proportion of Total	13-16 Years of Schooling	17-plus Years of Schooling
			Per cent		
15-19	68,482	Attending school	49.8	1.5	—
		Not attending school	51.2	0.6	—
20-24	62,613	Attending school	4.6	2.5	0.3
		Not attending school	95.4	7.5	0.3

SOURCE: Census of Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Among 20-24 year olds, less than 5 per cent were still in school. More than half of the group attending school had completed one or more years of post high school training. Of those not in school, 7.5 per cent had attained 13-16 years of schooling. Of the total 20-24 year age group, less than one per cent had completed the equivalent of one year's postgraduate work (17 + years).

In these tables, the results of low high school retention are clearly revealed. Previously it was noted that more than half of the high school graduates proceed to professional training. Yet, in relation to the total youth population 15-24 years of age, only 6 per cent had completed one or more years of any kind of post high school education. While it is true that most of the 15-19 year age group attending school would still be in high school, only one in ten of the 20-24 year age group had any education beyond high school.

Table 99 compares attendance at school for two age groups classified as farm, rural non-farm, and urban.[1] Urban and rural non-farm youth 20-24 compared with farm youth attend school in the approximate ratio of four to one. Yet it was noted that among first year enrolments at professional institutions, these two groups were nearly equal in size. Part of this difference is accounted for by the predominance of farm youth in short-term professional training, i.e., teachers college and nursing. Nevertheless, a large part must still be accounted for by continuation of urban and non-farm youth to vocational education — business college, trades, and so forth — in preference to professional training.

The trends indicate, therefore, that based on the total population of youth, a very small proportion continue their education beyond high school. Yet, of high school graduates, approximately 55 per cent enroll in professional training.

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[1] About 16 per cent of Saskatchewan farmers lived in towns and cities in 1951. Some farm youth, therefore, are undoubtedly included here in rural non-farm and urban classifications.

TABLE 99. ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL OF SELECTED AGE GROUPS, CLASSIFIED AS FARM, RURAL NON-FARM, AND URBAN, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Age Group	Origin	Total Number	Number at School	Per Cent at School
15-19	Farm	34,842	15,396	44.1
	Non-farm	14,360	8,211	57.1
	Urban	19,290	10,516	54.5
20-24	Farm	28,200	795	2.8
	Non-farm	11,872	565	4.7
	Urban	22,541	1,539	6.8

SOURCE: Census of Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

When it is considered that only about one-third of the elementary students enroll in Grade XII, and only half of those who graduate enroll in professional training, it raises questions as to the adequacy of the high school curriculum in meeting the needs of those who will not continue beyond high school.

High school graduates of farm origin pursue professional training more often than vocational, while the reverse would seem to be true for urban youth. Financial considerations may be partly responsible, since farm youth predominate in short-term professional courses. Children of urban workers undoubtedly tend more to prepare for industrial and service occupations. Their proximity to centers of vocational training may help to explain this difference in part.

Factors Related to Continuation to Higher Education

Obviously, the level of retention in high school is a basic qualifying factor in continuation to higher education. For Saskatchewan as a whole, fewer than one-third of the Grade VI students reach Grade XII, and only about 60 per cent of those who do actually graduate. Of all youth 15 to 19 years of age in the province, only half are in school. Thus, most students have left school entirely before completing the basic qualifications for advanced education. And, of those who do graduate, only a portion will continue their education in any event; thus the numbers of potential candidates are reduced still further. It is clear, then, that any substantial improvement in the proportion of youth enrolling in higher educational institutions will require first an improvement in retention through high school.

Many factors may be related to individual decisions with respect to continuing education beyond high school. Abilities, aptitudes, and interests leading to other vocational choices undoubtedly eliminate a large number from the list of potential professional candidates. Attitudes of parents were found to be quite important in determining retention of students in high school; they would appear to be even more critical in motivating young people to continue to higher education. It would seem that those for whom the opportunity to continue is combined with adequate incentive make up the number who actually enroll. Financial ability is certainly one principal limiting factor with respect to opportunity; therefore, the costs of higher education constitute one important consideration. Two additional factors which may be related to the incentive of students to continue are considered: the amount of vocational and professional guidance available to high school and university students.

Costs of Higher Education

Some indications of the importance of costs in influencing continuation to professional training have been noted in earlier sections. It was found, for example, that the majority of those seeking professional training enroll in short-term courses. Also, the proportion of students obtaining loans to attend Teachers College is high—42 per cent in 1955. While relatively fewer university students use student aid funds, 262 borrowed approximately $87,000 in 1954-55.

Attendance at the University of Saskatchewan for one year requires, on the average, a cash outlay of from $850 to $1,000. These estimated costs include tuition and fees plus allowances for board and room, incidental expenses, and transportation. Tuition and fees alone range from $260 to $465 per year, depending upon the college in which the student is enrolled. An additional $35 to $50 must be spent on books. Board and room for the seven-month period is estimated at $385, while transportation and incidentals amount to approximately $250 for the average student. These costs were based on the 1953-54 school year.

Loss of earnings while attending University is a legitimate charge against the costs of higher education. If one assumes arbitrarily that the student could earn $200 per month if he were not attending school, the loss per school year (seven months) would be $1,400. When this loss is included in computing costs, however, board and room and most incidentals (except transportation) must be excluded, since these costs presumably would be incurred in any event. On this basis the cost of one year's attendance would be $1,750 to $1,900.

When considered in relation to the fact that more than half of Saskatchewan farms are, in the opinion of the Commission, in almost chronic low income categories, the costs of higher education quite clearly restrict attendance at the University.

The student lacking means may seek a student loan or he may apply for a scholarship. The extent of student loans indicates that they are fulfilling a useful function. Scholarships too are undoubtedly helpful in individual cases, but their numbers are relatively limited, the amounts are often small, and financial need is considered in only a portion of the awards. In addition, fees and other costs have risen since many scholarships were established; thus their contribution has become relatively less important.

For 700 entering students at the University of Saskatchewan in 1953-

54, some 30 entrance scholarships were available. Of these, 16 were limited to graduates of city schools and several more were available only to members of certain groups. In all, no more than 10 were generally available to non-city residents. The average value of all entrance scholarships is approximately $200.

For all undergraduates (about 2,600 in 1953-54) an additional 50 scholarships averaging $150 and 70 awards of various kinds averaging $50 are available. A number of more substantial scholarships and fellowships are also available, but only to advanced or postgraduate students. Thus, about 150 (6 per cent of undergraduates) potentially may receive some financial help through scholarships.

This situation is in sharp contrast to that pertaining in some other countries. In England and Wales in 1953, 25 per cent of the university students received aid from scholarships awarded by the state or by local education authorities; numerous additional scholarships were awarded from endowments by universities and colleges and from other private sources.[4] In France, where most costs of higher education are assumed by the government, nearly all students receive financial aid. In the United States, the Presidential Commission on Higher Education proposed a generous scheme with scholarships to be granted to 20 per cent of the total university enrolment. The Massey Commission suggested a plan which similarly would aid about 20 per cent of Canadian students.[5]

If the 20 per cent figure is applied as a measure of need to University of Saskatchewan enrolment, 520 undergraduate scholarships and bursaries would be required. Actually, it was noted, there are fewer than one-third that many, a number of them for as little as $50. These facts indicate that the following findings of the Massey Commission have particular application in Saskatchewan:

> The development of our country from every point of view is dependent upon ensuring that through adequate training our ablest young men are equipped to carry out the tasks which they will be called upon to perform. Because of their financial circumstances, however, many of those potentially capable of playing an important role in the nation's development are unable, under present conditions, to get the necessary education. A national system of scholarships at all university levels is therefore necessary in our country, and it must be founded upon adequate federal aid for the education of our ablest young men and women.[6]

Vocational Guidance in High Schools

Outside the larger cities, very little formal vocational guidance or orientation is provided in Saskatchewan high schools. It is therefore probable that many students either arbitrarily make their vocational choices or delay making them because they have no reliable source of information and guidance. Since the fulfillment of basic high school requirements is essential to university entrance, guidance during these years is critical for those whose aptitudes and abilities indicate the desirability of professional careers. Moreover, skilled vocational counsel could provide a large measure of the incentive necessary to continue to higher education.

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[4] *Britain: An Official Handbook,* Central Office of Information, London, 1955, p. 316.

[5] *Report of the Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters and Sciences,* King's Printer, Ottawa, 1951, p. 362.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 155.

High school teachers themselves could be trained to give some general vocational orientation and to present some alternatives to the students. Beyond this a skilled vocational counsellor should be available at intervals to give individual guidance. The costs of this service per school would not be high since a single counsellor could serve several schools.

Professional Guidance in the University

A final factor to be considered concerning the supply of professional personnel has to do with the retention of students once they enter the University. A large proportion of those who enter the University never graduate (Table 100).

This table shows that 40 to 60 per cent of the students who originally enrolled in the different colleges dropped out before finishing their courses, with the exceptions of Agriculture and Pharmacy in which the percentages were considerably lower. An estimated 5-10 per cent of the original registrants drop out with an entirely satisfactory record while 10-25 per cent were either advised or required to discontinue. The largest proportion of those who dropped out did so during or at the end of their first year. The 1952-53 report of the University gives the following figures for first-year drop-outs as a percentage of total drop-outs: Agriculture 61 per cent, Arts 60 per cent, Commerce 62 per cent, Education 60 per cent, Engineering 62 per cent, Home Economics 76 per cent, Nursing 80 per cent, Pharmacy 74 per cent.

TABLE 100. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WHO DROPPED OUT BEFORE GRADUATION, UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN

College	Year of Entrance	
	1945	1946
Agriculture	34.0	31.5
Arts	46.6	43.2
Commerce	50.0	45.6
Education	—	41.1
Engineering	46.0	47.8
Home Economics	56.5	45.5
Nursing	46.2	55.0
Pharmacy	28.8	22.8

SOURCE: *Annual Report*, University of Saskatchewan, 1952-53, pp. 8, 9.

The University report goes on to observe:

> The numbers both of those who fail in the first year and of those who drop out before graduation are matters of deep concern. It is easy and perhaps natural for members of a teaching staff to lay the blame on such factors as, (1) poor preparation (in subject matter, methods of study, and attitudes), (2) lack of native ability of the students as related to the larger proportion of the population attending than in the past, (3) insufficient application to studies. Regarding the extent to which the quality of the teaching may be a factor, it can only be said here that the same story comes from all other universities. And the elaborate studies and comparisons made by the Department of Veterans' Affairs on the failures among veteran students indicate that our results are not exceptional.

The Commission does not suggest that this difficulty can be overcome by a lowering of the standards of the University. It does suggest, however, that the University may need to give more continuous attention to evaluating the circumstances which are causing this rather serious situation. The assumption can be made that each student who decides to discontinue does so for fairly specific reasons; lack of finance, enrolment in the wrong college, doubt as to academic ability, uncertainty as to job, and so on. The time to catch and assess such problems is while the student is still at the University. No doubt such situations do come to the attention of the Deans of the Colleges or the teaching staff and opportunity is provided for counselling. There is considerable merit, however, in the establishment of special and highly qualified counselling services in the University to supplement the separate facilities of the individual colleges. In this way, the needs of students can be given more specialized attention, and the situation in the entire University will be brought into sharper focus.

Summary

Demand for professional and semi-professional skills in Saskatchewan is higher than at any time in the past. Shortages exist in a number of professional categories in the provincial civil service, and there are indications that similar shortages exist among private employers. Shortages result from both a lack of students and the emigration of Saskatchewan graduates to other provinces and the United States.

Based on the total population of youth, a very small proportion continue their education beyond high school. Yet, of high school graduates, approximately 55 per cent enroll in professional training. The number of teaching and nursing candidates has been stable in recent years, while first year university enrolments have shown a slight increase.

High school graduates of farm origin pursue professional training more often than vocational, while the reverse would seem to be true for city youth. Farm youth predominate in short-term professional courses; children of urban workers apparently tend more to enroll in business colleges or trade schools. The high proportion of farm youth in professional courses is made up largely of female students preparing for teaching or nursing careers.

The level of retention in high school is a basic qualifying factor in continuation to higher education. Only one Grade VI student out of five eventually completes high school. Of those who graduate, slightly more than half pursue professional training. Thus it is apparent that continuation of any substantially greater proportion of youth to higher education depends first upon increasing the number of high school graduates.

The costs of higher education limit the numbers who might otherwise enroll at the University. The cost of one year's attendance, including an estimate of lost earnings, ranges from $1,750 to $1,900. When this is considered in relation to the low cash income of a majority of Saskatchewan farmers, the restrictive influence of the cost factor is clear.

Student loans and scholarships provide some aid to students lacking means. Use of student loans is high in Teachers College, somewhat less in University. Only 150 scholarships and bursaries, many of minor amounts, are available to University of Saskatchewan undergraduates; a maximum of 6 per cent receive aid in this manner. The Massey Commission has suggested that to train Canada's ablest young men and women the number of scholarships and bursaries should at least be equal to 20 per cent of the enrolment at universities. By this measure the University of Saskatchewan requires nearly 300 more scholarships of much more generous proportions than those offered at present.

Most high schools in Saskatchewan do not offer vocational guidance. Skilled vocational counsel could provide a large measure of the incentive necessary to continue to higher education and at the same time could probably improve the general level of retention through high school. Skilled counselling services at the University, to supplement facilities supplied by the individual colleges, would probably improve retention through University.

A further factor which limits attendance at University is the lack of encouragement given young people by their parents. This in turn is related to factors discussed in Chapter VIII.

CHAPTER X

Vocational Education

The social and economic forces described in Chapter III have made vocational education an important issue in modern education. Advances in agricultural technology, declining opportunities for farming, and the variety and complexity of industrial and commercial occupations have heightened the importance of all types of vocational training.

Many questions relate to the type of vocational education given to farm youth—questions pertaining to the objectives, content, and means of provision of a vocational education program. Opinion is divided on whether vocational education should be provided mainly through central vocational schools or whether some vocational or technical training should be provided in high schools. Certainly, the low retention of students in high schools raises the question of whether an exclusively academic curriculum can fully meet the needs of rural youth.

This chapter surveys present programs of vocational education in the province, defines objectives, and discusses some of the elements of adequate programs of agricultural and non-agricultural vocational education.

DESCRIPTION OF EXISTING PROGRAMS

Several programs exist at present in Saskatchewan for the provision of vocational education to various groups. The Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program and the Canadian Vocational Training Program are programs financed jointly by the Federal and Provincial Governments but organized and administered by the Provincial Government. Other vocational education is available at the School of Agriculture, located at the University of Saskatchewan, the three technical collegiates at Regina, Saskatoon, and Moose Jaw, and at composite schools and some high schools.

Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program

The Dominion-Provincial Youth Training program for 16 years has provided courses in homemaking for rural young women and courses in agriculture for rural young men. Courses for women are organized and directed by the Women's Service of the Department of Extension of the University of Saskatchewan and are offered at points throughout the province. In 1953-54, one residential course of six weeks' duration and four courses of two or three weeks attracted a total enrolment of 204. Local groups sponsor and assist these programs. Courses for men, organized and directed largely by the Department of Extension, University of Saskatchewan, with assistance from local groups, cover various aspects of agriculture. In 1953-54, three six-week residential courses and seven two-week courses in general agriculture were held as well as two six-week courses in farm mechanics and two two-week courses in rural electrification. The total enrolment was 441. Some of the mechanics courses offered under the Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program are given at the Canadian Vocational Training School in Saskatoon.

Canadian Vocational Training Program

In addition to its participation in vocational agricultural training, the Canadian Vocational Training Program includes courses for unemployed workers and apprentices. For unemployed workers, the training is designed "to fit for employment those who through lack of skill in a trade are unable to obtain permanent employment."[1] Trainees are selected by the National Employment Service and the Department of Education. If they are not drawing unemployment insurance, they receive a modest living allowance in addition to training. In 1953-54, 63 students were enrolled in the nursing assistants' course, 46 in commercial training, and 45 in pipe welding. In addition, 18 handicapped persons received special training.[2]

For the provincial apprenticeship program, the facilities and staff of the Canadian Vocational Training School are used. The program is administered by a branch of the provincial Department of Labour under the Apprenticeship and Tradesmen's Qualification Act. The Act specifies the requirements an apprentice must fulfill to obtain journeyman's status in a number of trades. The branch supervises on-the-job training of apprentices and also is responsible for administering in-school training. Table 101 shows the number of apprentices, by trades, in March 1953 and 1954.

TABLE 101. APPRENTICESHIP INDENTURES, COMPLETIONS, AND CANCELLATIONS BY TRADE, SASKATCHEWAN, 1953-54

Trade	Number March, 1953	1953-54			Number March, 1954
		Indentures	Completions	Cancellations	
Barbering	4	1	2	—	3
Beauty culture	33	14	13	6	28
Bricklaying	21	11	1	1	30
Carpentry	103	25	20	9	99
Electrical	61	52	16	5	92
Motor Body repair	40	15	—	5	50
Motor mechanics	171	55	7	33	186
Painting	11	2	—	—	13
Pipefitting	—	2	—	—	2
Plastering	5	—	—	—	5
Plumbing	49	38	9	5	73
Sheet metal	58	29	11	4	72
Welding	25	7	1	4	27
Total	581	251	80	72	680

SOURCE: *Annual Report*, Department of Labour, 1953-54.

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[1] *Annual Report*, Department of Education, 1952-53, p. 50.

[2] *Annual Report*, Department of Education, 1953-54, p. 28.

The apprenticeship program is a joint federal-provincial program in which the costs of training, field supervision, transportation, and subsistence allowances are shared equally. The provincial Apprenticeship Board believes that the training program is satisfactory but has found that the facilities at the Canadian Vocational Training School are inadequate for the expanding program. It therefore has recommended the provision of new buildings as soon as possible.[1]

School of Agriculture

The School of Agriculture, located at the University of Saskatchewan, offers a two-year vocational agriculture course leading to a diploma. Candidates for admission must be at least 17 years of age and must have completed Grade VIII. Enrolment in the past few years has averaged approximately 120 students from nearly every area of the province.

Described as "a practical course of studies for young farmers who intend to return to the farm,"[2] the two-year curriculum covers a wide range of agricultural subjects, from crop production and livestock feeding to machinery repairs and plant diseases. The school year is tailored to the farm season, commencing late in October and closing in March. In addition to lecture courses and laboratory work, students are encouraged to carry out practical farm projects during the interval between the first and second year. In the past, however, there has been little contact maintained between the school and the student on the farm. More field work is required if instruction and project work are to be effectively related to the student's home environment. Present plans of the school call for a start on this type of program; should it prove effective, it undoubtedly will result in better use of the school's staff and facilities.

While the school's emphasis is on practical training in agriculture, the broader aspects of rural living are an integral part of the curriculum. Thus, the student receives training in written and spoken English as well as in the functioning of the rural community. In their informal activities students participate in organizational and administrative tasks designed to give them experience in group organization and leadership.

Attendance for one year at the School of Agriculture costs each student approximately $430 for tuition, living expenses, transportation, and books. Considering the past and present income of farmers generally, this is a rather formidable expenditure for the average farm family. Costs for a year of schooling have almost doubled in the past ten years. The greater part of the increase is made up of increases in tuition and living costs, although other components have risen as well.

The apparent result of high and increasing costs has been to limit the use of the school to young men from the more prosperous farms. This is demonstrated by the fact that the average size of the home farms of School of Agriculture students has been increasing year by year. In 1949-50 the average size of farm represented was 830 acres; in 1950-51, 1,100 acres; and in 1955-56, 1,360 acres.[5] Table 102 reveals more clearly the distribution of students by size of home farm. In 1955 only 12 per cent of the first year students were from farms of less than one section, while nearly half came from farms of two sections or more. The discrepancy between these figures and the actual distribution of farms by farm size is great. Of all farms in the province, in 1951, 69 per cent were under one section in size, while only 5 per cent were two sections or more.

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[1] *Annual Report*, Department of Labour, 1953-54, p. 31.

[2] *General Calendar 1953-54*, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon.

Although there may be several factors which contribute to the preponderance of students from large farms in the School of Agriculture, it seems reasonable to conclude that many potential students are prevented from attending by the costs involved. If the school is to fulfill its function for the total farming population, assuming past and present levels of farm income, means must be found to increase programs of financial aid to students.

There are at present a number of scholarships available to School of Agriculture students. Twenty-one scholarships of $150 each are available to first year students,[6] and three of $100 each are available to second year students.[7] In ad-

TABLE 102. DISTRIBUTION OF FIRST YEAR SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE STUDENTS BY SIZE OF HOME FARM, 1949-50 TO 1955-56

Farm Size in Acres	Distribution of Students			Distribution of All Farms 1951
	1949-50	1950-51	1955-56	
	Per Cent			
Under 201	0	0	0	19
201-479	24	6	3	32
480-639	10	14	9	18
640-959	31	29	20	19
960-1,279	13	25	22	7
1,280 +	22	26	46	5
Total	100	100	100	100

SOURCE: Records of the School of Agriculture, and *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

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[5] In computing the averages for each year, only those students whose size of home farm was known were considered; some failed to supply the information and a few were not from farms. Only the cultivated acreage of ranches was included, thus the average size of total land holdings would be somewhat larger.

[6] Sixteen of these scholarships are offered, one per district, by the Saskatchewan Wheat Pool. In 1955-56 all 16 were awarded, compared with 15 in 1954-55, and 10 in 1953-54. Of other scholarships, 3 are awarded by T. Eaton Co.; 1 by the Saskatchewan Dairy Association; and 1 by G. South of Whittome.

[7] Awarded by the Winnipeg Grain Exchange.

dition, the Canadian Vocational Training Program offers a number of awards up to $100 each to assist in the payment of fees and, within the school, a few awards are made for meritorious work. Each of these awards by itself, however, is sufficient to defray only a small portion of the cost of a year's schooling. What is required, it would appear, are additional scholarships of a more substantial nature to enable deserving students from low and moderate income families to attend.

Technical Collegiates, Composite Schools, and High Schools

At present, there are three technical collegiates in Saskatchewan, each of which offers a program of academic and vocational education. Vocational education includes several phases of shop work, commercial studies, and home economics. With respect to the manual arts, the technical collegiates do not try to develop finished tradesmen. Normally the time of apprenticeship is reduced only for graduates of motor mechanics courses; in the past a reduction of two months has been allowed on a five-year apprenticeship.[8] Graduates of commercial courses, however, are ready for employment as stenographers and clerical assistants.

Enrolments in technical schools have declined over the past few years at a time when total high school enrolments have been increasing. This may mean only that provision of facilities for similar types of courses at other points has reduced the technical school student potential. Total enrolment at the three technical collegiates in selected years during the past ten years was as follows:

Year	*Enrolment*
1941-42	3,103
1946-47	2,997
1950-51	2,868
1953-54	2,587

A decline in total enrolment in technical collegiates does not, however, imply a decline in enrolment in vocational or technical classes. In 1953-54, there were 40 technical and composite schools offering courses that entitled the school to receive government grants to aid vocational teaching. A few other schools offer some commercial courses but do not receive grants for these courses.

Exclusive of the three technical collegiates and the School for the Deaf, there were 36 composite schools (including urban collegiates) in 1953-54. All except one of these 36 composite schools provided some classes in shop work, home economics, and commercial courses. Exclusive of collegiates in the three main cities, the School of Agriculture, and the School for the Deaf, there were 29 composite schools in 1953-54. In 1953-54, the total enrolment in the 29 schools was 5,945. Recently, three larger units have employed agricultural instructors to develop courses in vocational agriculture, working largely with out-of-school boys and young farmers.[9]

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[8] Reduction of apprenticeship time for graduates of technical school courses is constantly under review by the Trade Advisory Board of the Department of Labour. Recently the time allowance for motor mechanics students has been lengthened and graduates of electrical courses have been included for consideration, although for both groups applications are individually reviewed.

In addition to the composite school programs, some itinerant programs provide vocational education. In 1953-54, home economics and shop work were taught in part of the Milestone school unit and in the Radville unit on an itinerant basis. Shop work was also offered in the Kinistino unit on the same basis. In the Maple Creek unit, a shop work course is provided through use of a "shop-mobile". Although these itinerant programs offer vocational classes, they are not supported by finances under the Dominion-Provincial Vocational Assistance Agreement. Itinerant programs are being studied closely to evaluate their possible usefulness for an expanded program in the future. Saskatchewan's low rural enrolments would appear to make itinerant vocational instruction particularly adaptable to the needs of this province.

Students at composite schools are required to enroll in a minimum of five academic classes and a maximum of three vocational courses. This precludes students' enrolling in vocational classes to the exclusion of academic courses and assures that students taking vocational courses will graduate with university entrance requirements. Students who take the maximum number of vocational subjects in their high school years are thus qualified to graduate with a standard high school certificate. Except for graduates of commercial classes, however, those who take vocational electives are not fully qualified for special employment.

The proportion of the total student population of 29 composite schools enrolled in various types of courses in 1953-54 was as follows:[10]

Total enrolment	5,945
Enrolments with academic classes only	13%
Enrolments with 1 vocational credit	39%
Enrolments with 2 vocational credits	38%
Enrolments with 3 vocational credits	6%
Enrolments in special vocational classes	4%

* * *

In summary, various types of vocational training are provided through several programs. The Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program offers short courses in agriculture and home economics at various places throughout the province. In 1953-54, total enrolment in all short courses was 814. The Canadian Vocational Training Program, also a joint federal-provincial program, provides training for unemployed workers and apprentices.

The only vocational programs which lead to certificates of qualification are the apprenticeship program administered by the provincial Department of Labour, the School of Agriculture course at the University, and courses offered through the Canadian Vocational Training Program. The average number enrolled for training in these courses has been approximately 250 in recent years, but fewer than 250 have completed the courses each year.

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[9] Kindersley, Kinistino, and Sturgis.

[10] Records of the Department of Education.

Technical schools and composite high schools also provide some vocational or technical training. The technical collegiates provide a varied program in shop, commercial, and home economics courses. Graduates of the manual arts course at the technical collegiates, with the exception of motor mechanics graduates, are not credited with any apprenticeship training in the trades. Composite schools provide more limited vocational education than technical collegiates, with students limited to three vocational electives.

EXTENDING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Before the requirements of an adequate vocational education program and the problems associated with achieving it can be examined, the objectives of vocational education must be defined. If the function of vocational education is the single one of preparing students to qualify for specialized, non-professional employment, then but one set of criteria is required. If, however, there are additional useful functions which may be served by vocational education, these must be defined and considered. Problems and requirements associated with expansion may then be analysed.

Objectives of Vocational Education

There can be little doubt that one basic purpose of vocational education is the imparting of specific job skills in preparation for employment. In these terms the status of the School of Agriculture, the Canadian Vocational Training Program, and the apprenticeship program administered by the provincial Department of Labour is clear. Recognized certificates of qualification are awarded, and graduates enjoy some assurance that they are prepared to enter employment in their chosen fields.

Few programs at the high school level, however, are successful in preparing students for agricultural, technical, or trades employment. At the technical collegiates, commercial training for clerical and office employment comes close to meeting the training needs of students in that field. In preparation for the trades, however, it has been noted that present training does not take the place of any appreciable portion of apprenticeship. Such training may, of course, enhance the student's chances of acceptance in the trade. But in his view it may also be time wasted since it may actually delay his achieving full journeyman status.

Composite schools, in terms of job preparation, accomplish even less. With but three vocational electives allowed each student, adequate basic training can be acquired only in commercial courses. Few composite schools outside major cities, moreover, could conceivably offer on-the-job training to any except agricultural students. On-the-job training is considered to be one of the requisites of sound vocational training.

It is also questionable that high school students are sufficiently mature to choose and prepare for a vocation. A study conducted in Ontario indicated that 51 per cent of high school girls between 14 and

19 years of age and only 32 per cent of boys between 14 and 22 had selected their vocations.[11] School of Agriculture experience in Saskatchewan supports this observation; few farm boys 17-18 have selected their vocations.

In view of these limitations one must look beyond job-training objectives to find the justification for high school vocational training. Many educators view vocational classes, not primarily as preparation for employment, but rather as an important aspect of the curriculum which supplements academic study. Conceiving, organizing, and executing a practical project may do more to instill disciplines of work and thought in some students than many hours spent in academic discussion. These educators hold that, more than just teaching manual skills, practical electives provide an important medium for teaching students how to apply abstractions to very concrete problems. As such, although they are of more value to some students than others, they are vital to a complete education.

Specialization and segmentation in modern life tend to make the individual "all head" or "all hands." Thus the "thinker" is pictured as one puzzled by the problem of driving a nail, while the "worker" is pictured as a man interested only in practical matters. Obviously both of these concepts are false, but they contain enough truth to give pause to educators. Would the "thinker" not be a better thinker with a more accurate understanding of his environment if he had some experience in manual skills? And would not the "worker" (as we have pictured him) be a better worker if he had more academic interests? Relating theory to practice is at least part of the justification for including vocational subjects in the high school curriculum.

Beyond these considerations, many educators support vocational classes as part of an enriched high school curriculum because such classes fulfill needs of a portion of students and help heighten their interest in school. That this is true is indicated by retention statistics in Saskatchewan schools—almost twice the proportion of students are retained to Grade XII in composite schools as are retained in small high schools. Thus, students who otherwise would have dropped out of school have enjoyed equal opportunity for personal development with those whose main interest lies in academic subjects.

While superintendents in Saskatchewan generally support vocational classes as an important part of a complete education, they do not agree on the extent to which the availability of such classes is a controlling factor in retention. In their responses to a questionnaire,[12] two-thirds of the superintendents of larger school units regarded curriculum as an influential element in retention, but ranked other reasons as equally or more important. In response to a specific question on the influence of vocational classes on retention, superintendents considered other factors more important.

Nonetheless, evidence on the retaining power of vocational classes is sufficiently strong to warrant their inclusion in any comprehensive program devised to attack the problem of retention.

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[11] A. J. Renney, *Some Aspects of Rural and Agricultural Education in Canada*, University of Toronto, 1950, p. 77.

[12] See Appendix VI.

It seems clear, therefore, that vocational training must be considered on at least two levels. On the first level the objective is thorough training in specific skills leading to employment. It is this level which is most important with reference to training farm youth for urban occupations and to serving the growing industrial needs of the province. Vocational training on this level is largely beyond the capacity of high schools to provide. The second level of consideration views vocational classes as part of a balanced high school curriculum —a part which can contribute to a more complete education, to bridging the gap between theory and practice, and to the retention of a higher proportion of students through high school.

Demand for Increased Vocational Education

Chapter XII indicates that many individuals and provincial organizations favoured increased vocational education in the high schools. In an effort to ascertain more precisely the attitude of ratepayers towards problems of curriculum in general and increased vocational education in the high school in particular, the Commission submitted a questionnaire to superintendents of larger school units[13] and to a limited sample of local school boards.[14] Only 11 per cent of superintendents felt that ratepayers held curriculum responsible for the low retention of students in school "to a fairly great extent"; 72 per cent stated that ratepayers consider curriculum responsible "to some extent." Of the small sample of school boards, 51 per cent felt that ratepayers in their districts were "not at all" interested in vocational classes if added expense would be involved; 43 per cent of the boards believed their ratepayers might be "somewhat" interested. These opinions would indicate that ratepayers are not greatly concerned about increased vocational education in the curriculum, particularly if it means increased costs for education.

Problems in Extending Vocational Education

Numerous problems face the school system if increased opportunities for vocational education are to be provided. These problems concern financing, population sparsity, and teacher requirements.

Financing

At present, 34 larger school units or superintendencies are served by schools that provide some vocational education;[15] 26 have no vocational education facilities. To attain the student population required to maintain and operate a composite school in the towns or villages in these units would necessitate provision of either a dormitory or a conveyance system. Either alternative would entail considerable costs to the unit. In addition to initial building requirements, vocational or technical classes require expensive equipment.

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[13] Appendix VI.

[14] Appendix VI.

[15] There are 29 composite schools; in addition, the technical collegiates at Regina and Saskatoon each serve two units and the collegiate at Moose Jaw serves one unit.

Under the Dominion- Provincial Vocational Assistance Agreement, which has been in operation for the past ten years, 17 new schools, 13 extensions, and 3 dormitories have been built. Total grants paid by the Federal and Provincial Governments for construction and equipment amounted to $2.6 million. Grants paid to technical collegiates amounted to 75 per cent of cost of additional space required. Grants to other schools covered 80 per cent of this cost. Equipment costs for the schools varied between $7,000 and $28,000. Exclusive of the School of Agriculture, the School for the Deaf, and the three technical collegiates, the average cost of equipment for all schools equipped under this plan, whether new schools or expanded facilities, has been about $16,000. School plants, because of differences in size, design, and construction, varied in cost between $20,000 and $200,000. The 17 new schools built under the recent agreement averaged approximately $128,500 each. Sturgis composite school, a school built in a village, cost approximately $95,000 and in 1953-54 accommodated 187 students. Grants - in - aid for building and equipping this school totalled $42,600.

If 26 more units are to be equipped with school plants of quality equal to the average of those already provided, building and equipment costs will be sizable. If present costs can be assumed, $4,000,000 would be required to build schools in the remaining 26 units of comparable quality to those already provided. Federal-provincial grants would considerably reduce this cost to the rural ratepayers. If a unit is building a new, enlarged school to facilitate centralization, the addition of technical or vocational facilities with the aid of the grants available would be relatively inexpensive.

Establishing the plant, however, is only part of the cost. In addition, the costs of operation and maintenance must be met. Since these schools would serve rural students as well as urban, conveyance, dormitories, or high school allowances would have to be provided.

While the financing of these projects under the present Dominion-Provincial Vocational Assistance Agreement may appear feasible, the lack of a more stable agreement creates a risk. Even if federal funds were available for the capital requirements of a full-scale provincial program of vocational education at the composite school level, it is questionable whether the province would be able to meet operating costs and maintain educational standards if federal funds were withdrawn. Furthermore, present arrangements for federal funds for vocational training require the province to match all funds provided. If total costs for vocational education are substantially increased the province might find financing its share burdensome.

Population Sparsity

In addition to the problems in providing adequate facilities, a sufficient concentration of students is necessary to support composite schools. In any larger unit there are enough students to support such a school. But many units may have difficulty in supporting a composite high school with the population of a given urban center and its immediate neighbourhood. Perhaps the inaccessibility of the composite school to students from distant points would limit the influence of a vocational program in discouraging drop-outs. The inaccessibility of the composite school would decrease its value to the unit as a whole.

In areas of sparse population, the assembling of a minimum of 150 high school students at a given point will require considerable conveyance or a dormitory. Parents of junior high school students particularly may not approve of dormitories for children 13 to 15 years old. In his response to a Commission questionnaire, one superintendent noted that if dormitories, conveyance, and composite schools were required to provide vocational or technical training in rural Saskatchewan, such a program was not justifiable.

Teacher Requirements

Any expansion in the vocational education program immediately raises the problem of securing sufficient numbers of adequately trained teachers. Teachers of agriculture and home economics must be professionally trained in both the science and educational field. Agriculturalists thus require an additional year of work in education, a consideration which deters many candidates from undertaking the teaching of agriculture. The fact that higher salaries are required to attract and retain agricultural teachers works against harmony within the teaching profession. The Dominion - Provincial Vocational Assistance Agreement makes allowances for financial assistance to aid in the training of vocational teachers. Little use has been made of this provision, but future use may be expected if assistance is needed to obtain the required teachers.

Elements of an Adequate Program of Vocational Education

Because Saskatchewan is preponderantly agricultural, opportunities for non-farm employment are relatively limited. At the same time, changes in agriculture are shrinking the numbers employed in farming. Urban growth combined with growing industrial diversity indicates a higher proportion of non-farm workers in the future. These facts, coupled with the fact that large numbers of rural youth leave the province seeking urban employment, have sharpened the need for non-farm vocational training. At the same time, those who remain in farming require much more scientific and commercial training than was true for their parents. Some of the basic requirements of adequate farm and non-farm vocational training are examined in this section.

Vocational Education for Non-Farm Employment

Greater co-ordination between the provincial apprenticeship program and the trades and industrial training offered by technical collegiates would contribute to more effective vocational training for non-farm employment. Since the technical collegiates are located in the three major centers of the province, there is no physical block to providing more on-the-job training. If such on-the-job training could be integrated with the apprenticeship program so that the student would receive credit for more apprenticeship time, greater numbers of students would be persuaded to continue their education and prepare for their chosen trades at the same time. The technical collegiates could then provide a greater measure of vocational training for the resident populations of the province's three major cities.

For the mature student, however, a more extensive program is required. The needs of growing industrial development and the needs of the farm youth moving to industrial occupations cannot be fulfilled by the present limited program. The apprenticeship division of the Department of Labour has indicated that present facilities are inadequate. In view of these circumstances, careful consideration should be given to the need for establishing a provincial technical school located where on-the-job training facilities exist. With the full support of industry, the trades, the Department of Education, and the Department of Labour, such an institute could fulfill a growing need.

Opportunity for technical training in the province, however, will provide only part of the answer for farm youth required to seek urban employment. To help retain farm youth in school and to provide them with the impetus to undertake technical training, a competently staffed vocational guidance program is required within the school system. With the guidance which such counsel would afford, the needs of more students could be met with less uncertainty by a technical institute.

Vocational Education for Agriculture

The provision of vocational agriculture in high school, except for courses in motor mechanics, would not require the capital expenditures necessary for training for the trades. Since on-the-job facilities are readily available, it might appear feasible to provide vocational agricultural training at the high schools, including smaller high schools.

There has been considerable interest in the inclusion of an agricultural elective in the high school curriculum, although those in favour are quite insistent that a proper balance be maintained with academic courses.[16] Proponents of agricultural education differ with respect to the age at which such courses should be introduced. In a questionnaire survey covering a large sample of persons across Canada, 25 per cent favoured postponement of agricultural training until after 18 years of age, 72 per cent opposed postponement, 2 per cent made no reply. Questioned as to the desirability of postponing such training until after graduation from high school, 27 per cent favoured postponement, 63 per cent opposed postponement, 10 per cent made no reply.[17] Those opposed to postponement noted that farm boys, if not interested in the school program, would have dropped out of school before high school.

The Canadian Education Association in a study of agricultural education in Canada concluded that agriculture should be taught in high school. On the basis of its study, it concluded:

> A good rural high school program will provide a flexible curriculum which will meet the requirements of:
>
> (a) those who will engage in agriculture or in occupations related to it;
>
> (b) those who will seek the necessary qualifications to enter the professions (including technical agriculture);

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[16] A. J. Renny, *op. cit.*, p. 123.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 123.

> (c) those who will seek employment in urban centres.
>
> . . . .
>
> In senior high school grades the program should be an integrated one with a basic core of the general subjects. The program should provide:
>
> (a) a college preparatory course, with such electives as school organization will permit;
> (b) a general course with practical electives, one of which will be agriculture; or
> (c) if the school is large enough, a vocational course, one department of which would be vocational agriculture and farm mechanics;
> (d) adequate guidance.
>
> . . . .
>
> The course in vocational agriculture and farm mechanics should:
>
> (a) have a strong core of general education subjects;
> (b) be a practical course giving basic training in important phases of farming;
> (c) be related to special agricultural features of the area;
> (d) use the farm-home project method which would be supervised by the instructor throughout the year;
> (e) make use of good farms in the area for observation and demonstration purposes
>
> . . . .
>
> The instructor in vocational agriculture should:
>
> (a) be a graduate of an agricultural college;
> (b) have adequate practical farm experience;
> (c) have special teacher-training in vocational agriculture;
> (d) work closely with the representative of the Department of Agriculture.
>
> . . . .
>
> The program of vocational agriculture should carry beyond high school. The instructor should be available as a consultant for young adult farmers and should act in co-operation with the representative of the Department of Agriculture. The school should offer evening classes and/or special short courses for farmers in the area. There should be close co-operation between the Departments of Agriculture and Education.
>
> Beyond the high school program, special regional agricultural schools might serve a useful purpose.[18]

Vocational agriculture has been introduced in individual Saskatchewan schools from time to time on a local experimental basis. In no case was the experience so favourable that a continuing program was established. Recently, however, interest in vocational agriculture has been reawakened in several areas of the province. This interest encompasses both in-school and out-of-school programs.

In-School Services. The low retention of rural youth in school, the low level of formal schooling of the farm population, and the need for improved standards of education have been urged as reasons for incorporating some vocational training in agriculture in the high school curriculum. But several difficulties are involved. Because high school students are not sufficiently mature to make a final decision on their vocation, any vocational agriculture included in the curriculum should be broad and general so that students will be encouraged to continue their education beyond high school. If vocational training in agriculture is offered as part of a general curriculum, as is done for non-farm vocational training, students specializing in agriculture will have to remain in high school for three or four years to derive any benefit from this agricultural training. Proponents of vocational training in the high schools contend that vocational training will increase the retention of students through high school. But it is questionable whether students who intend to farm would remain in school for this limited amount of training.

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[18] *Agricultural Education in Canada,* Report of the Canadian Education Association, June, 1951, pp. 32-34.

To determine the advisability of instituting agricultural education in high school and the type of training to be provided, it is important to know whether students who complete an agricultural course return to the farm. No information exists in Saskatchewan because an agricultural course has not been available. But studies have been made in the United States. From eleven studies of the occupational status of vocational agricultural high school students, it was found that 49 per cent were farming, or in related occupations, and 51 per cent were in non-agricultural occupations.[19]

A ten-year study of former students of vocational agriculture in the state of Kentucky indicated employment distribution of graduates and drop-outs (Table 103). Of those who graduated from vocational agriculture schools, 47.2 per cent were employed in non-agricultural work. Of those who were employed in agriculture, the great majority were farming. Of the drop-outs, 57.3 per cent were employed in non-agricultural work. Although the majority of the other drop-outs were farming, proportionately fewer drop-outs than graduates were farming.

Probably more significant than the employment distribution within each group is the fact that more students dropped out than graduated. Of the total number of students involved, 57 per cent had dropped out between junior high school and the fourth year. Thus, a curriculum which included agricultural education was not successful in retaining even half of the students until graduation.

TABLE 103. OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF FORMER VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE STUDENTS IN KENTUCKY, 1953*

Occupational Status	Graduates		Drop-Outs	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Non-agricultural occupation	2,711	43.5	4,349	54.2
Farming	2,351	37.8	2,561	31.9
Related agricultural occupation	520	8.3	501	6.2
Part-time farming	288	4.6	331	4.1
Non-agricultural colleges	228	3.7	252	3.14
Agricultural colleges	128	2.0	23	0.28
Total	6,226		8,017	

SOURCE: *Ten-Year Study of Former Students of Vocational Agriculture in Kentucky, 1940-1950*, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky., p. 13.

* These figures exclude those in the armed services, those whose occupations were unknown, and those who were deceased.

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[19] *Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education*, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1954, p. 3.

Since many students dropped out and the majority of drop-outs did not continue in agricultural work, the report concluded that a large number of the drop-outs should not have continued in the agricultural program and that many of them should not have undertaken the training. Since only 37.8 per cent of the graduates entered full-time farming, the report concluded that many of the graduates could have benefited more from some other type of training.[20]

Unless continuation in school is greatly enhanced, then, by the inclusion of vocational agriculture in the high school curriculum, other measures will have to be considered to provide agricultural education. Measures to increase the accessibility and use of the School of Agriculture may be needed. Or a regional approach to vocational agriculture might be considered. In a regional program, more thorough training could be provided than is possible at the composite school—training of the quality of vocational electives offered at the technical collegiates.

In summary, the only practical type of vocational education in agriculture for rural high schools is one which can be taken in conjunction with the academic classes required for graduation with a standard certificate. Even assuming that most farm students are retained in school, it is unlikely that those who require a specialized agricultural education will attain it within the limits of a composite school program.

If the in-school program were expanded to provide a full-scale agricultural curriculum, available evidence indicates that the majority of students would not be retained in school until graduation and that half the graduates would not remain in agriculture. It is true that an agricultural education would be useful to almost any student, particularly in a farming economy. Nevertheless, the student who does not farm would probably derive greater value from pursuing a different course after obtaining sound vocational guidance.

Out-of-School Services. The difficulties in the provision of agricultural training in high school and the serious question as to its benefits make consideration of out-of-school agricultural training particularly important. Since the majority of farm operators cannot take advantage of formal classroom instruction and few young farmers attend vocational agricultural courses, out-of-school services offer an important method of raising the level of agricultural education.

Experimental programs in vocational agriculture are being developed in the Kindersley, Kinistino, and Sturgis larger school units. Each program is being developed individually with little, if any, central direction. The Kindersley and Kinistino programs are primarily designed for out-of-school students, while the Sturgis program has thus far been confined to classroom instruction. The Kindersley out-of-school program, which has been in operation for the longest period of time, will therefore be reviewed in some detail.

The Kindersley program is designed to serve three groups—established adult farmers, young farmers who have completed school but are not yet established in agriculture, and students in high school. The course for the high school group is intended to be of two levels—an exploratory agricultural appreciation course for junior high school students, and a vocational course with supervised farm projects for senior students. Thus far, only the out-of-school program has been instituted.

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[20] *Ten-Year Study of Former Students of Vocational Agriculture in Kentucky, 1940-1950,* Univerity of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky., p. 51.

The out-of-school program takes the form of young farmers' clubs organized at the request of local ratepayers. In January, 1955, 15 young farmers' clubs had been organized, each with an average membership of 20 farmers of about 35 to 40 years of age. Each club has an executive board, which is responsible for determining its local program. The clubs have offered courses in various subjects, including welding, electrification, carpentry, parliamentary procedures, and farm management. Considerable emphasis has been placed on the latter, out of which has grown remarkable interest in improved business methods by the participating farmers. These courses are taught by an agricultural supervisor hired by the larger school unit. Regular meetings are held in local schools or halls in winter and in unofficial gatherings in summer.

The vocational agriculture program in the Kindersley unit as a whole is directed by an agricultural council, composed of two delegates from each young farmers' club, one member appointed by the unit board, one member appointed by the Principals' Association, the superintendent of the unit, the agricultural representative, and the agricultural supervisor. The agricultural council is guided by a constitution and is responsible for the vocational program in the entire unit. The council forwards policy decisions to the larger unit board, which makes final decisions on the program of vocational agriculture and allocates funds. The agricultural council then administers the program and the expenditure of funds.

The Kindersley program is financed largely by local taxation. The approximate annual expenditure for vocational education in the unit is $6,500, of which $2,500 is derived from federal and provincial grants under the Vocational Assistance Agreement. Additional expenditures, if any, at present are borne by local taxation.

The Kindersley program has been well received by the local farmers. Partly, its success is due to the excellent instruction provided by the agricultural supervisor in the unit. The impact of the program may also be related to the fact that it has been developed as a community program, with the school administration serving the needs of the main industry in the community. In this way, the school and the community have been brought closer together.

Young farmers' clubs as developed in the Kindersley larger unit hold promise as a vehicle that can provide the required education and command the support of the community. To expand such a program to a provincial level requires that some organization or agency be prepared to give leadership for the organization of local adult and young farmers' clubs. Provision will also have to be made for supplying the clubs with qualified instructors in agriculture and homemaking. Larger unit boards, agricultural district boards, and local farm and women's organizations are in a position to provide the required leadership for organization, but none has the professional staff which would be required. The key problem in expanding the out-of-school agricultural program is the selection of the proper agency to be responsible for organization, administration and servicing.

The requirement that the program be locally organized, supported and serviced rules out the University Extension Service, the Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program, and the School of Agriculture as suitable agencies to administer the program. In addition, although all these groups are making significant contributions in this field, present limited staff cannot provide the scale of service required in each community. The main local agencies which could assume leadership in organizing and servicing young farmers' clubs are the agricultural district boards of the Agricultural Representative Service and the larger school unit boards.

If agricultural district boards undertook to develop this type of program, additional agricultural representatives would have to be added to present staff. At present, it costs the province approximately $9,000 to maintain an agricultural representative in the field. While the total cost to the school unit including the salary of an agricultural supervisor would probably be comparable, a portion would be borne by the Federal Government through the Vocational Assistance Agreement. In the case of the Kindersley unit, the joint provincial-federal contribution is $2,500. Unless federal funds for vocational education are made available to agencies other than the Department of Education, vocational education can be most effectively financed through this department. It is also true that agricultural representatives, who are responsible to and directed by the Department of Agriculture, would be involved in administration of department policies and would not be as free to be directed by local taxpayers.

Since larger unit boards have access to federal vocational funds, since as elected representatives they have authority to raise funds for local programs, and since they are custodians of educational facilities and resources, school units are in the most favourable position under present conditions to provide leadership for the organization and service of young farmers' clubs.

Difficulties may arise in co-ordinating a program of vocational agriculture education sponsored by the larger school unit and the agricultural extension program for farm families carried on by the agricultural representative service. Workable divisions of responsibility will need to be developed between the local agricultural representative and the agricultural teacher. The field of agricultural education is broad and the population to be served is extensive. Agreement as to program emphasis and division of responsibilities between agencies should be readily achieved. If the Commission's recommendation for coterminous school-municipal units or the county system is implemented, the agricultural teacher and the agricultural representative will serve the same area. In the county, they will also be working through the same local government body.

To assure equal opportunity for vocational education to all areas of the province, provincial grants for the employment of agricultural supervisors would be necessary. Provision would have to be made also for training sufficient agricultural and homemaking educators at the University of Saskatchewan so that all units could be equally served.

While the primary emphasis of the out-of-school program as it is developing in the Kindersley unit is on vocational agriculture, it also contains elements of a broader adult education program. Thus, supplementary courses such as parliamentary procedures have been included, and the social and cultural needs of the groups have been considered. It is perhaps natural that only a very fine line divides vocational from broader educational objectives in this type of program. The types of local community organization which can stimulate and develop both out-of-school vocational activities and broad adult education programs is discussed in the following chapter.

In summary, out-of-school vocational agriculture programs are being undertaken as experiments in two larger school units. Experience in the Kindersley unit indicates that young farmers' clubs provide a sound organizational framework for this program. The larger school unit employs an agricultural supervisor to teach various courses in agriculture to farmers and future farmers in these clubs. An expanded program of out-of-school vocational education might preferably be initiated and administered by larger school units, rather than by the agricultural representative service or extension service, principally because federal funds under the Vocational Assistance Agreement are available to the Department of Education for this purpose. Larger school units would, nevertheless, require the co-operation of resource personnel from the Department of Agriculture and the Extension Department of the University. Implementation of proposals for a modified county or a county system of local government will facilitate such an arrangement.

School of Agriculture. Vocational programs developed at the community level will supplement but not take the place of the School of Agriculture. It is and should remain the foremost vocational agriculture institution in the province. To make the School more effective and to extend its influence, two changes are required. The first would make the School more accessible financially to students from moderate and low income families. This change could be accomplished either by the provision of more substantial scholarships or by reducing the costs of attendance. The second would require developing a field service to permit School supervision of farm projects on students' home farms. A program of this kind would not only assist in relating classroom experience to the farm environment; it would also help the School become more closely associated with other vocational and agricultural programs.

SUMMARY

Among programs providing vocational education in Saskatchewan are two joint federal-provincial programs. The Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program offers short courses in agriculture and home economics at various places in the province; the Canadian Vocational Training program provides training for unemployed workers and apprentices. Other provincial programs include the two-year course offered at the School of Agriculture (University of Saskatchewan), the combined academic and vocational education offered at the three technical collegiates in the province, and the vocational courses offered in composite schools and high schools.

Objectives for vocational education must be considered on at least two levels. On the first level the objective is thorough training in specific skills leading to employment. It is this level which is most important with reference to training farm youth for urban occupations and to serving the growing industrial needs of the province. Vocational training of this type is largely beyond the capacity of high schools to provide. The second level of consideration views vocational classes as part of a balanced high school curriculum—a part which can contribute to a more complete education, to bridging the gap between theory and practice, and to the retention of a higher proportion of students through high school.

Numerous problems face the school system if an expanded program of vocational education is instituted. The financial problems include the financing of substantial capital requirements—which could be met in part from federal-provincial contributions under the Vocational Assistance Agreement—and the financing of the costs of maintenance, operation and conveyance. The sparsity of population presents a problem in securing adequate concentrations of students at accessible locations to warrant the provision of vocational education. Finally, trained teachers in agriculture, home economics, and other subjects would be necessary.

An adequate program of vocational training for non-farm employment demands more and better facilities for mature students than exist at present. Present technical collegiates could fulfill a greater part of the need for urban students if their programs offered on-the-job training and were more fully coordinated with the provincial apprenticeship training program. The expanding industrial needs of the province and the large numbers of rural youth who must seek urban employment, however, point to the need for a provincial technical institute. Such an institute should be located in the center offering the most adequate on-the-job training facilities and should offer courses of practical training integrated with theoretical instruction. It could succeed only with the full co-operation of industry, the trades, the Department of Education, and the Department of Labour.

The opportunity for technical training will provide only part of the answer for farm youth required to seek urban employment. To help retain them in school and to provide them with the impetus to undertake technical training, a competently staffed vocational guidance program is required within the school system.

Because of the availability of on-the-job training facilities for agricultural employment and because agricultural training, exclusive of motor mechanics, would not require the capital facilities required for training in the trades, it might appear feasible to provide vocational agriculture in high school. The objectives of vocational education should be clarified to define whether it is offered as part of a diversified, broadened curriculum or to qualify students for farming.

The only practical type of in-school services in vocational training for agriculture is that which can be offered in conjunction with the academic classes required for graduation with a standard certificate. Low retention of students in high school and the tendency of graduates of vocational agriculture high schools to leave farming militate against providing a strictly vocational agriculture course in high school.

Experimental programs in out-of-school services for vocational training in agriculture indicate that larger school units, rather than the agricultural representative service or the extension department of the University, can effectively initiate and administer programs for young farmers' clubs. The availability to the Department of Education of federal funds to support an agricultural supervisor, the power of the larger school unit to raise funds through local taxation, and the resources of the larger school unit in buildings and facilities place the larger school unit in the most favourable position to finance and administer out-of-school vocational training in agriculture. Some duplication of responsibility with the Agricultural Representative Service will result but this should present no insurmountable problems.

The School of Agriculture should continue as the foremost institute in the province offering vocational agricultural training. To increase its accessibility to students from average and low income farms either more substantial scholarships should be awarded or the costs of attendance should be reduced. The expansion of the training program to include field supervision of farm projects on students' home farms would greatly enhance the value of the course.

CHAPTER XI

Continuing Education for Adults

Thus far this study of rural education has discussed in some detail the organization and administration of rural education and some of the related problems of financial and teaching resources. The yardstick of student retention has been applied as one measure of effectiveness. The rural educational system was found to be seriously deficient in this respect in an age which demands an ever-increasing degree of skill and understanding. Some further implications of these deficiencies have been examined as they apply to professional and vocational training.

In a broader sense, however, education and formal schooling are not identical in meaning. Formal schooling—public, high school, and university—involves the dependent age groups in any society. The standards and achievements are therefore closely related to prevailing attitudes of the adult population. Formal schooling will thrive only if there is a firm fouadation of an alert, inquiring, and informed adult society. Beyond this there are direct and urgent values in the continuing education of adults which provide safeguards to the process of democracy. The complexities of modern social and economic issues, the rapidity of change, and the responsibility of citizens are such that learning must continue beyond high school and even beyond university training.

Continuing education[1] implies the extension of opportunities for learning beyond the years of formal schooling. First of all it recognizes that, as long as life lasts, the ability to learn will persist. Second, it recognizes that the quality of learning will depend upon the nature of the subject matter and methods through which adult learning takes place. Both subject matter and methods, in turn, are dependent on and related to the motivation of adults as they actively seek to find an effective relationship to their surroundings. The subject matter of continuing education is such as to defy precise definition. Adults may be inclined to continue their education by a desire to gain greater competence as parent, worker, member of a civic group, or citizen; to obtain a broader intellectual understanding or cultural appreciation; to improve job qualifications; to develop creative abilities through effective use of leisure time; or to make up for deficiencies in formal schooling. All of these personal goals are legitimate fields for programs of continuing education. Opportunities for such activity may also come through a wide range of methods: listening to a radio discussion; reading a book provided by the community library; participating in a discussion group; attending evening classes at a university; preparing resolutions for an organization; studying for a vocation through an extension course. These and many other activities are the means to continued growth through adult learning.

Several significant differences exist between the conditions for the continuing education of adults and the conditions for formal education. Continuing education does not have a set, established curriculum although it is concerned with many specific skills and facts. Its students are not compelled to attend school nor to conform to set rules of discipline. Nor are its teachers endowed, in principle, with the authority of a formal school teacher. There are valid reasons for these differences. Continuing education has to do with the individual of mature years—with providing the means whereby he can, on his own initiative, develop his capacity to think, to create, to express himself. The adult is distinctly different from the child or youth in experience—his occupational needs, his personal relations, his concern for the welfare and security of the family. This experience is an invaluable component of any program of continuing education; standardized or preconceived activities are quite incompatible with it. The climate of continuing education of adults when combined with wide variations in content and method provides an infinite field of challenge in the development of rural education in Saskatchewan.

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[1] The term "adult education" is similar in meaning but does not adequately convey the central idea of "continuing" education beyond the years of formal schooling.

The task of determining responsibility for continuing education in a modern democratic society requires careful analysis. Democracy involves a delicate balance between freedom and responsibility. To be free one must persist in acquiring broad knowledge of social and economic issues. To be responsible one must actively participate in the resolving of those issues by the democratic process. It is therefore not enough to identify continuing education with the "growth of the individual." Individual development, paradoxically, often flourishes best in association with others. Determining responsibility thus leads directly into consideration of those groups which collectively give substance to the concept of democracy. In addition, of course, opportunity should be provided for the stimulation of self-study and personal growth, for man is almost inherently a curious creature.

Three primary groups can be identified as carrying the major burden of responsibility for continuing the education of adults: voluntary organizations, governments, and universities. In a world of rapid change the task of defining what ought to be the responsibility of each of these groups is not easy. How much is to be expected of voluntary associations in view of their limited funds and personnel? What can a government do with discretion without being accused of "indoctrination"? Where does a university fit into the picture with the richness of its opportunity to mobilize and focus intelligence on community life and the needs of people? How can the activities of these three groups be so related that each contributes its best to the goal of vitalizing a democratic society?

The purpose of this chapter will be to review the activities of voluntary organizations, the university and governments in providing opportunities for the continuing education of adults in rural Saskatchewan. In each instance specific attention will be given to describing the range of opportunities provided and the extent to which such opportunities appear to be consistent with the definition of continuing education outlined above. The particular goal of this chapter is to survey broad principles and relationships as a basis for some general guideposts for the future development of continuing education in Saskatchewan. The Commission could not, with its limited time and data, go into an intensive or extensive analysis of these principles and relationships as they apply to specific aspects of the present situation. It is hoped, however, that even this limited contribution will prove useful.

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS

The most common community setting in which adults continue their education in Saskatchewan is the voluntary organization. Such organizations number in the hundreds in the province and, although most are organized primarily for purposes other than education, their total contribution to the objectives of continuing education is significant. The reports of this Commission contain many examples of the serious thinking which often enters into their activities. While it is impossible here to present any comprehensive analysis of their organization, purposes, and techniques, certain observations relating to their role in continuing education are pertinent.

Evolution of Voluntary Organizations

The voluntary organization of persons to pursue a common purpose or to solve a common problem was a product of nineteenth century democracy. Its birth and growth reflected the new social and political consciousness of people struggling to control or adjust to their environment. Recognition of the need for reforms was followed by the formation of new organizations which gave them substance. Some organizations served their purposes and faded away in a short time; others became more permanent institutions of considerable influence. It is worthy of note that social services which are taken for granted today—social welfare, education, medical care—were pioneered less than a century ago by voluntary associations. It was not uncommon for citizen organizations to demonstrate by practical example what governments should do and, frequently, how they should do it.

With the emergence of the modern state, important changes began to occur in the character of many voluntary organizations. Purely philanthropic, charitable, and propaganda groups made way for pressure groups, bargaining agencies, and specialized institutions. Today, few democratic governments can determine their policies without consulting farm organizations, chambers of commerce, trade unions, and other groups. If these groups are to assume such responsibility with the support of an informed membership, then continuing education is no longer a luxury but an urgent necessity. The results of such education will be felt not only in consultations between organizations and government, but in a better informed electorate capable of mature guidance in matters affecting the general welfare. It is still common, of course, for voluntary citizens' organizations to pioneer, to try out, and to venture into new areas of activity; this is a primary purpose of such groups. It is from this volunteer ferment that activities still emerge for testing and experimentation, some, though not nearly all, eventually to be taken over by government.

Purposes

To even the casual observer of the Saskatchewan scene, the large number of voluntary groups and the extent of their activities is immediately apparent. Their types and purposes are manifold. Most, it would seem, were organized to solve practical problems—particularly the economic problems of consumers or occupational groups.[2] It is perhaps natural that economic interest has dominated the scene on the prairies, where natural and man-made hazards have conspired to compound the uncertainties of making a living. Still, there are many other organizations which are directed towards cultural enrichment or the creative use of leisure time.

In an age of technology and mechanization, thousands of people find that they can become "whole" human beings only through the use made of their off-work hours. To answer this need they have established community centers, art activities, and hobby facilities. In general, these activities are less directly concerned with formal educational pursuits than with providing opportunities for the development of creative abilities. In part, they are a social expression of rebellion against the "spectatoritis" of modern mass entertainment media — television, motion pictures, broadcasting.

While it is apparent that matters of cultural taste are still relatively undeveloped in Saskatchewan, the extent of organization in this area has increased remarkably in the past decade.

The very number of diverse special interest organizations has created a problem in almost all rural communities. One banker in a small town with a population of about 600 informed this Commission that over 150 organizations maintained accounts at his bank. Since the pattern is for the same people to provide leadership in many organizations, public spirited citizens often become discouraged or just worn out. Competition between organizations for citizen interest and time becomes extreme, and the general welfare of the community suffers.

On the one hand, this situation reflects our inability to "bury" organizations which long since served the purpose for which they were established; on the other, it reflects the mushrooming of new problems requiring local solution. The very rapid growth of public interest in international affairs in the last decade is but one example of such new problems. Often new organizations are created where an existing organization might well meet the new need by discarding outmoded activities. The problem will become more critical unless some means are found to assess the situation in each community and to work out ways of improving co-ordination.

In specific instances this may mean only the better use or adaptation of present organizations or the dissolving of organizations which have long since served their original purpose. It may mean greater emphasis upon a community clearing house where information can be exchanged and priorities assessed.

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[2] One outstanding example of an approach to the resolution of social and economic problems in Saskatchewan is the co-operative movement. Having achieved a large measure of success, most co-operatives in the province are now facing problems of maturity. With their growth, decisions which their members should share have become more complicated. Moreover, a new generation of members must be attracted to the movement. The importance of meaningful programs of continuing education to the consolidation of co-operative gains is being increasingly recognized.

More energy may need to be exerted in broadening the base of leadership through greater understanding of problems associated with participation or in shifting of leadership by the transference of responsibility from the old to the young. These and other alternatives require careful exploration before the situation in any single community can be fully understood.

A similar situation exists at the provincial level. There is a growing need for some medium whereby organizations can share knowledge of their programs and activities, whereby some consideration can be given to reviewing the massive activity being funnelled into rural communities and whereby an awareness of priorities may develop which will further the general welfare of rural people. From the citizen's viewpoint confusion results when so many agencies touch the local community at some point; further confusion is generated by what seems to the citizen to be overlapping and competition of services. Finally, all agencies come to focus on the relatively limited number of leaders; active competition for the time of these valued persons can quickly become excessive.

Techniques

The techniques used by voluntary organizations to pursue their ends are many and varied. They may involve meetings and discussion, formal lectures and study, recreational and social pursuits—in varying degrees and combinations. More often than not, opportunities for educational activity are combined with various forms of recreation. Thus it is quite common to find community meetings featuring a visiting speaker on a subject such as "wheat marketing," followed by a program put on by local talent.

In their selection of techniques voluntary groups encounter many problems. Farm organizations, as an example, are often necessarily concerned with pressing for action on immediate issues which threaten the farmer's welfare. The situation is no different in most other economic interest groups. Any activities under these circumstances tend to emphasize more the passing of resolutions than the pursuit of greater knowledge about the problems themselves. This is not to deprecate the importance of group action, but rather to urge that a deeper understanding of the nature of economic and social problems would enhance the value and effectiveness of action. Further, greater knowledge and understanding of problems minimizes the possibility of incorrect or misdirected action.

Mere lip service to educational objectives may have serious repercussions for the vitality of the group itself. Regular study does more than provide informed support for the purposes for which a group is organized; it provides a climate necessary to the maintenance of "togetherness" and stability in the organization. Without it there is danger of "leadership" becoming isolated from "membership" and taking on different attitudes. When this happens membership interest declines and the organization loses in effectiveness. Any group professing broad social and economic interests cannot afford to neglect the careful grooming of its educational activities. This is particularly true of large organizations with scattered memberships.

Planning the educational program can be improved in most groups, from the smallest to the largest. Too often groups are exposed to a parade of visiting speakers whose topics have little relationship to the understanding and activities of the members. More time devoted to planning could provide a series of useful and vital intellectual experiences.

Underlying many of the problems in this area are the limited financial resources available to most groups for educational purposes. Organizations may recognize the inadequacy of their present programs and still be unable to progress because they lack the means to do so. This limitation on the potential contribution of voluntary organizations in the field of continuing education is probably the most general and most serious of all.

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In summary, it seems clear that in terms of their purposes, their numbers, their programs, and their enthusiasm and initiative, voluntary organizations occupy an indispensable position in continuing the education of adults. The chief limitations, at both the local and provincial level, are related to problems of finance, insufficient study of social and economic issues, over-organization, and overconcentration on the leadership of relatively few citizens.

The Commission hesitates to suggest that there are any ready answers to so complex a situation. Several suggestions can be made to indicate the direction in which possible solutions might be found. The problem of finance will be resolved only if some means are found that will buttress and deepen local citizen effort. The logical source of such assistance is the provincial government. In Great Britain, remarkable achievements have been realized in this manner. The general pattern is one of liberal grants provided by the state to voluntary organizations and universities to support educational activities of high standard. In the United States, the states of New York and California have for a long time provided grants to local school boards for adult education. In Denmark and Scandinavia up to 50 per cent of the costs of adult education in cities and in residential schools (under private auspices) are provided in the form of direct grants. The government sets minimum standards and has the right to audit accounts.

Related to the financial need is the obvious requirement of a closer association of voluntary organizations at both the provincial and community levels. If the enthusiasm and initiative of voluntary organizations are to be harnessed in the interest of improved continuing education, then the means must be provided whereby acceptable priorities can be established, knowledge of programs shared, and activities co-ordinated around significant objectives. The National Farm Radio Forum and the Citizens' Forum, for example, provide such a focus for the national radio network with a direct impact upon the local community through its neighbourhood discussion groups. The film councils do the same for the National Film Board. In Saskatchewan, the Arts Board, the Audio-Visual Board and the Saskatchewan Council on Public Affairs are important steps in the same direction. No provincial council of organizations devoted to the development of adult education is in existence. Both British Columbia and Manitoba now have such Councils. Such a development seems essential if the work of bringing educational opportunity to adults is to proceed with reasonable order and direction.

THE UNIVERSITY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

It has been a short 75 years since universities first began developing systematic approaches to adult education. While there is now general agreement that a university should be a primary source of the knowledge, personnel, and skills essential to continuing education, the precise responsibilities of a university in this field are subject to widely varying interpretations. In addition, each university faces problems in assigning priorities to limited resources in satisfying growing responsibilities. Because of the university's key role, however, it is vital that its task with respect to continuing education be defined and understood together with its implications for the total university program. Only then can an integrated approach be formulated which will assure adequate emphasis on continuing education.

It is beyond the scope of this section to attempt to develop any such integrated approach which might be applicable to the University of Saskatchewan. The intent here is to explore some of the problems involved in defining the university's role in continuing education and to make a preliminary evaluation of the extent of the university's present contributions.

The extension function has long been recognized by administrators of the University of Saskatchewan. The first president, Dr. Walter C. Murray, was enthusiastic in seeking to extend the College of Agriculture to the countryside. The agricultural and homemaking extension services of the College of Agriculture have played a fundamental role in the transformation of farming, particularly through the development and application of scientific agriculture.[3] The contribution of the university in extending non-agricultural services to the people of the province is of much more recent origin. While some general adult education services were offered through the offices of the Agricultural Extension Department for a number of years, it was not until 1950 that a general university extension division was formally organized and a full-time supervisor of adult education appointed. In recognizing this change the President of the University commented:

> Hitherto our organized extension services have been confined (with one or two exceptions) to agricultural work, as indicated by the title "Department of Agricultural Extension." An important development of the year has been the decision to enlarge the scope of that department so as to include all suitable extension activities of all colleges and departments. This is another example of appropriate university expansion within our present organizations.[4]

The implications of these changes for the future role of the University of Saskatchewan in providing active leadership in adult education are not yet clear. Certainly much work is being done. A good deal of informal, unorganized work is carried on by the several colleges of the University; contributions in drama and music have been particularly significant. The present professional staff of the Adult Education Service consists only of a supervisor. Despite this limitation, useful services include the lending of films, and the provision of short courses, lectures, and study materials. In addition the Supervisor organizes and services the Citizens' Forums. The Department of Extension also services the National Farm Radio Forum. The staff of Regina College has devoted substantial effort to extend the resources of the College to the Regina community. Particularly noteworthy contributions have been made in the fields of art, drama, music, and business administration.

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[3] See the Commission's reports on The Home and Family in Rural Saskatchewan and Farm Income for an analysis of adult extension programs in agriculture and homemaking. The final report of the Commission will also evaluate the need for a Community Development Center in Saskatchewan.

[4] *The President's Report*, Part I, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, 1949-50, p. 7.

Despite these contributions, a review of the literature on adult education in the universities across Canada leaves no doubt that a serious lag exists in the development of an effective university service in Saskatchewan. When the review is extended to the United States, Great Britain and the Scandinavian countries, the conclusion must be that the University of Saskatchewan's general adult education services are relatively underdeveloped.

What then are the responsibilities of a university in the field of continuing education? The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization has provided an effective guide in its publication, *Universities in Adult Education.* Five simple and general rules set forth by UNESCO provide criteria against which we can measure the effectiveness with which the resources of the University of Saskatchewan are being applied to the continuing education of adults:[5]

1) The university should restrict itself to complex subject matter and leave to other agencies those subjects which can be handled on a routine basis.

2) The university should be a pioneer, but once the pioneering is done it should abandon the venture to other better qualified mass agencies and go on to new problems.

3) The university should train leaders at every level of society and in every sphere of activity.

4) The university should collaborate with the many other agencies in society which provide adult education. In this way it can assist other agencies and avoid doing those things which it should not do.

5) The university should master adult education as a field of knowledge. If this task is to be done well then the university must be able to draw upon the resources of strong departments of social science and the humanities.

The first criterion would seem to apply particularly to the question of standards for university participation in programs of continuing education. In this area, more active leadership should be exercised by the university. What kinds of subjects and what subject matter content will serve the greatest needs of citizens? What aspects of these needs can be answered only through the resources at the command of the university? How can the personnel resources of the university be most effectively utilized? Not only should the university be responsive to public demands for opportunities in continuing education; it should also consider its unique role in using its resources to meet those needs. Unless it assumes responsibility in this field the university may waste its resources through superficial activity and render its program less effective through a failure to understand its proper role.

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[5] *Universities in Adult Education,* United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 1952, pp. 21-22.

The second criterion—that the university pioneer in program development but relinquish programs when established—suggests that care be taken in expanding the functions of the Adult Education Service. The university should continue to be concerned with the development of a basic information center for such resources as films, publications, study materials, and other teaching tools. Beyond this, however, it would seem wise to adopt a policy of an experimental approach to program development. Substantial need exists for such an approach in devising improved means of facilitating adult learning, the defining of areas of adult study, the improved use of audio-visual and printed materials, defining the clientele of adult education, leadership and leadership training, and seeking means to overcome the special difficulties of rural adult education.

The lack of leadership training (the third criterion) is one of the university's most serious deficiencies in the field of continuing education. Both the professional adult educator and the voluntary community leader are important to continuing education. Many in both groups are university trained; more will be in the future. Professional personnel from whom a portion of future volunteer community leaders will be drawn are today, more often than not, technical specialists in fields other than education. If there is one general educational problem which can be raised in this frame of reference, it is that modern specialized training tends to underemphasize the importance of the humanities and human relationships. In many instances the highly trained technician today is handicapped in functioning within the social framework because he is inadequately grounded in the humanities and social sciences. This situation points to a growing need for universities to seek some solution to the problem of reconciling the technical and liberal requirements of university trained persons.

One can be more specific with reference to the training of professional adult educators. The common denominator in continuing the education of adults, whether sponsored by voluntary organizations, government, or university, is the fieldman. Everywhere this worker has somewhat similar responsibilities, although employed by widely different organizations.

> The fieldman is usually adept at influencing his fellows, in initiating new activity and developing new interests. He is versatile, at home in many fields of activity. Often he is unafraid or unconscious of difficulty. He has zeal and enthusiasm, enough cheerfulness to provoke it in others, and fortitude for the drab days. Rarely is he a dogmatist, a bigot or a perfectionist; usually he is ready to assist others to reach out for solutions, not accept ready-made formulas. He has demonstrated capacity for further growth.[6]

These qualities are valuable, but if the activities of the fieldman as a professional adult educator are to have direction and depth, then he requires those educational experiences which will give him the necessary skills and knowledge. Since adults are and must be voluntary participants they provide a most critical—and challenging—audience. In working with them the fieldman must do more than just impart information; he must also assist them to acquire something of the inquiring attitude of the scientist if they are to arrive at sound opinions. In most instances, the fieldman in serving his own organization must also serve the whole community. To do this well he must understand the community and be able to identify those forces which facilitate and inhibit the growth he seeks to promote. Added to this is the need to be flexible; he must be open to new methods and ideas.

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[6] J. R. Kidd, *People Learning From Each Other*, Learning for Living Series, Canadian Association for Adult Education, p. 12.

Despite these vital contributions by the fieldman to the development of continuing education, and the large number of fieldmen in the province, the university is not equipped to provide the assistance needed to aid these men in their difficult task. Little opportunity is provided for even limited training in philosophy, social psychology, sociology, teaching, counselling, community organization, administration, or public relations. Some organizations have been able to compensate for this deficiency through in-service training programs of their own. Few fieldmen fail to place strong emphasis upon the need. In a recent survey of agricultural representatives in Saskatchewan, the primary training deficiency recognized by this university trained group of men was in the field of human relations. Lack of such training leaves no other recourse than trial-and-error learning of basic skills and contributes to programs lacking in depth and direction. Consideration should be given to the establishment of at least three levels of training at the university:

1) Courses in skills, techniques, and backgrounds for professional adult educators;

2) Less intensive courses for candidates for all professions;

3) Intensive short courses for training voluntary adult education leaders both on and off the campus.

With respect to the fourth rule set forth in the UNESCO publication—that the university collaborate with other adult education agencies—much also remains to be done in Saskatchewan. While progress has been made in the short history of the university's Adult Education Service, many avenues of co-operative work with other agencies remain to be explored. It is particularly vital that university resources and activities be utilized to their fullest in co-operation with the Adult Education Division of the Department of Education. Only through such joint efforts will the voluntary organizations and community groups of the province have adequate access to the resources of personnel and knowledge of the university.

It seems inconceivable that the university can serve its proper function in this area on the basis of its present organizational and financial emphasis. This brief review confirms the need for broadening and integrating the university's emphasis on general adult education. In minimum terms, the emphasis placed upon this field should be at least equal to that placed upon agricultural extension. This seems true particularly in view of the growing contribution of the Agricultural Representative Service to agricultural extension and the absence of any comparable body in the field of general adult education. The staff and budget of the Adult Education Service should be reconsidered in light of these requirements. Consideration should also be given to establishing a branch of the Service in Regina College to promote appropriate use of available facilities and personnel in the broader service of adult citizens.

The final admonition of UNESCO—that the university master adult education as a field of knowledge—

has far reaching implications for the total university program. Both the development of professional training and the mastery of adult education as a field of knowledge depend upon the existence within the university of strong and vital departments in the humanities and social sciences. Unfortunately, university research in the humanities and social sciences has lagged far behind research in the natural sciences, not only in Saskatchewan but elsewhere. That this condition is general throughout Canada is verified by the Massey Commission report. "It has become increasingly clear," stated the submission of the Canadian Social Science Research Council to that Commission, "that much more thought and reflection must be put into the study of human relationships."[7]

This lack of emphasis on research and training in the humanities and social sciences has grave implications for continuing education. It means, first of all, that these departments will have insufficient resources to meet the needs of a growing adult education program. Equally serious is the failure to accumulate and examine a body of knowledge most vital to a program of continuing education. This constitutes a grave limitation—one which merits careful consideration by those responsible for educational policies in Saskatchewan.

Also, the relationship of the university to the interprovincial and international community should not be neglected. If the university is to attract and retain inspired and competent professional leadership, then broad knowledge of continuing education programs in Canada, the United States, and other countries of the world is required.

Finally, if the university is to function as the repository for a large share of the knowledge, personnel, and skills which form the basis for an effective program of continuing education, then it cannot afford to be divorced from the communities of the province. Contact with the day-to-day problems of communities provides a continuing source of insight and enrichment which improves the quality of teaching and research. The double value of two-way communication between university and communities reinforces the conclusion that the university occupies a key position in expanding opportunities for adult education.

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In summary, no attempt has been made in this short section to review the full implications of the university's many and substantial shortcomings in services for general adult education. Certainly they are related, in large part, to the absence of any clear definition of responsibility for continuing education, particularly between the Provincial Government and the university. Also involved would be an analysis of the lack of integration of the adult education services of the various colleges of the university. At present, while a central service does exist, most colleges are relatively autonomous in their services to adult citizens. The extremely limited budget and personnel available to concentrate resources on adult education within the Extension Services place severe limits on the opportunity for either expansion or integration. Finally, there is evident need for a fundamental rethinking of the contribution which a provincial university, supported largely by public funds, should make to the focusing of resources upon the interests and problems of adult citizens in their communities.

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[7] *Report of the Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters and Sciences,* King's Printer, Ottawa, 1951, p. 166.

The contribution of the university to the development of intelligent approaches to continuing education is much too vital to remain in its present state of neglect. The responsibility does not rest with the university alone. Until the role of the university within the general organization of adult education within Saskatchewan is thoroughly studied and defined, and until the appropriate financial resources are made available, only piecemeal progress can be expected.

GOVERNMENTS AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

In defining the responsibility of governments in continuing the education of adults, few statements by publicly responsible bodies are as precise and forceful as that of the Massey Commission on Arts, Letters and Sciences. While the specific reference is to the Federal Government, it applies with equal clarity to the Provincial Government.

> There is no general prohibition in Canadian law against any group, governmental or voluntary, contributing to the education of the individual in its broadest sense. Thus the activities of the Federal Government and other bodies in broadcasting, films, and similar fields are not in conflict with any existing law. All civilized societies strive for the common good; including not only material but intellectual and moral elements. If the Federal Government is to renounce its right to associate itself with other social groups, public and private, in the general education of Canadian citizens, it denies its intellectual and moral purpose, the complete conception of the common good is lost, and Canada, as such, becomes a materialistic society.[8]

With this statement this Commission is in complete accord. Despite progress made in recent decades, however, it seems that governments have been hesitant to engage in comprehensive and fully effective programs of continuing education. This statement is made with full awareness of the difficult issues involved, which have been argued since the days of the Greek philosophers. But there is a much greater urgency to the question at a time when democratic government, as it is known in the Western world, is being challenged on a world-wide scale. The formal participation of government in promoting the material welfare of citizens has gone ahead so rapidly that the process of education in the exercise of democratic functions has been outdistanced. There is a growing gap between the machinery of democracy and the people's capacity to work the machinery and to occupy positions of authority.

It is not intended, in this study, to evaluate the contribution of political parties to the continuing education of adults. They do and should have an important influence although, unfortunately, their influence often leaves much to be desired. Suffice it to say that, if we are to see well-founded democratic forms of government directed by men of ability and conscious of their responsibilities, it is increasingly essential that everyone be given the chance of acquiring the education necessary to exercise this responsibility. Political parties need to become increasingly aware of the opportunity for a significant contribution to this objective and equally aware of the dangers of an excessive emphasis upon narrow political polemics.

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[8] *Report of the Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters and Sciences,* King's Printer, Ottawa, 1951, pp. 7-8.

It is this business of continuing education to educate men to have opinions of their own; the lack of opinions freely arrived at is a fundamental cause of the unsatisfactory functioning of the democratic system. To the extent that continuing education is concerned about increasing citizen knowledge of social and economic affairs, then it must in fact reflect some political or philosophical view of life. That this is inescapable seems no sound reason, however, for arguing that governments, whether federal or provincial, can avoid accepting an increasing responsibility for adult education. An inflexible rule, of course, is that state machinery cannot be used to propagate and perpetuate the ideas of the government of the day. To do so would be fatal to adult education, which cannot flourish save in a free atmosphere.

It is the task of government, in the opinion of this Commission, to ensure that the development which it seeks to promote is one of free growth. It can pursue this course in a number of ways: through consultation and advisory services, through financial assistance to citizen councils, through experimentation with new techniques, through providing facilities, and so on. All of these things can and should be done without entailing serious risk of undesirable propaganda and political polemics in the narrow sense of the word.

Provincial Government

During the past decade the Government of Saskatchewan has shown active and continued interest in the development of adult education. Today, adult education services are offered by a number of government departments, including Education, Health, Social Welfare, and Agriculture. Within the space of this chapter it would be impossible to recount their full extent. The discussion is limited, therefore, to those with a primary orientation towards broad adult education programs. They are the Adult Education Division, the Saskatchewan Arts Board, the Saskatchewan Recreation Movement—all activities under the Department of Education—and rural libraries, serviced by the Provincial Library.

Adult Education Division

The Adult Education Division of the Department of Education, established a little more than ten years ago, initially emphasized a program of community study and action centered on community problems. The objective of the program was to assist community groups to come together to identify common problems and organize their resources to study them. On the basis of their study, community groups then developed and implemented programs of community action. To serve the needs of this central program, the Division developed supplementary services such as programs of adult study in the schools.

The study-action community approach of the Division won wide initial support. The very rapidity of its growth, however, contributed to its ultimate failure. Because demand expanded so quickly the staff was soon overwhelmed and unable to service adequately the demands made upon it. At the same time the unorthodox approach of the program combined with some errors made in initiating programs roused political tempers and inspired concerted attacks on the Division. Under these circumstances the initial program was largely abandoned, although some emphasis has continued on the "lighted school" as the center of local activities in adult education.

In more recent years the Division has shifted its focus to working with the leadership of voluntary organizations. One example of this emphasis is found in the annual Institute on Group Development. Started in 1949, these Institutes have since involved some 300 adult education and administrative personnel, many from other parts of Canada, in a training program for responsible group leadership. The situation which led to this program has been well stated by the Committee on Group Development in its presentation to the Commission:

> It has long been apparent that many organizations in the province could increase their effectiveness were they able to secure the involvement and participation of their total membership, rather than relying upon the interest and activity of a relatively small minority. A democratic community or organization cannot continue to function as a healthy social unit unless all its members are exercising their rights and carrying out their responsibilities. Moreover, decisions are likely to improve in quality and in implementation if the total membership shares in the making of them.

While there are professional adult education personnel who express disagreement over certain aspects of this program, there is no doubt that it is developing insights into problems of effective citizen participation at a time when such participation is at a low ebb. If there is criticism to be made of the program it would be that increased citizen awareness of the working of the democratic process cannot be separated from the need for increased citizen knowledge of the economic and social issues which the democratic process is designed to resolve. The ability to form considered opinions is the foundation of democracy; if this is not recognized then there is danger of an overemphasis on method to the point where it contributes to a perpetual "pooling of ignorance."

In recent years the group development project has been independently sponsored by a wide range of provincial organizations and agencies. The personnel of the Adult Education Division, however, have carried primary responsibility for the continuity of the program. Perhaps as a consequence of this activity the Division has been drawn into an increasingly active resource relationship with voluntary organizations seeking assistance in the development of institutes and conferences.

Another activity resulting from the Division's policy of stimulating voluntary groups to contribute more actively to serious programs of continuing education for adults is the Saskatchewan Council of Public Affairs. Continuing leadership is provided jointly by the Adult Education Division and the Adult Education Service of the University. The council was established in 1953 "to foster and promote the discussion of public affairs by the people of Saskatchewan."[9] Although the Council is politically neutral, it "encourages the expression of partisan points of view . . . provided that many and diverging viewpoints are presented in a balanced fashion."[19] A wide range of organizations make up the membership of the Council. Two summer Institutes have since been held; one focused on "Trade and Aid—Prairie Interest in Foreign Policy" and one on "Peaceful Co-existence—How?" It is also expected that the Council will provide a central medium for the pooling of information and other public affairs resources.

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[9] Minutes of meeting, Saskatchewan Council of Public Affairs, December 12, 1953.

The Division also assists in an annual Farmer - Labour - Teacher Institute in which members of these three significant groups in our society exchange ideas on matters of mutual concern. These activities are examples of a type of serious study directed towards encouraging greater individual social and political responsibility. The impact in terms of number of citizens affected, however, is limited.

The Adult Education Division has also been active in stimulating interest in regional co-ordinating committees. While limited success has been achieved thus far, the objectives are important in encouraging closer co-ordination between the field workers of the various government departments and voluntary organizations. Ventures of this type can make a significant contribution to the unification of local adult education services if the field workers recognize the necessity for co-operation and if their senior officers at the provincial level sanction the activity. More experience is required before the full value and stability of regional co-ordinating committees can be estimated.

In total, the activities of the Adult Education Division show a commendable emphasis on assisting and servicing voluntary organizations. If, as this Commission has argued, voluntary organizations are the logical setting for the continuing education of adults, then the present orientation of the Division is sound and should be continued. A corresponding emphasis on guidance in the development of the social and political responsibility of citizens, however, remains almost undefined and superficial at best.

While not suggested to the Commission in the presentations of citizens, the question has been heard from time to time as to whether an adult education service in the Department of Education is necessary. Could not a strong adult education service at the University of Saskatchewan serve the purpose equally well? In the opinion of this Commission there is a clearly defined need for an adult education administration in the government service. Its function, however, should be carefully defined as an agency which can facilitate the appropriate use of government technical and financial resources. More important, perhaps, is the need for some agency in the Department of Education to give professional encouragement to the development of programs of continuing education in the rural school system. While this may not be an accepted function of the larger school units for some time to come, it will be argued in a later section of this chapter that the community school is the logical center for continuing education at the local level.

Saskatchewan Arts Board

The Saskatchewan Arts Board is an independent citizens group which is indirectly associated with the Adult Education Division. This again is an example of the Department's policy of encouraging continuing education for adults through independent groups of citizens and voluntary organizations. The Saskatchewan Arts Board was established in 1949, by an Act of the Provincial Legislature. The Board was given the following responsibilities:

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[19] *Ibid.*

(a) To make available to the people of Saskatchewan opportunities to engage in one or more of the following activities: drama, the visual arts, music, literature, handicrafts, and other arts;

(b) to provide leadership in such activities;

(c) to promote the development and maintenance of high standards for such activities in the province.[11]

In the performance of its duties the Board is empowered to:

(a) Provide for the training of lecturers and instructors in the principles of drama, the visual arts, music, literature, handicrafts, and other arts.

(b) Subject to such regulations as may be prescribed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, grant scholarships or loans from the fund to students ordinarily resident in Saskatchewan for the purpose of assisting them in the pursuit of their studies in drama, the visual arts, music, literature, handicrafts, and other arts;

(c) Co-operate with organizations having similar objects.[12]

No attempt will be made to assess fully the success of the Board in attaining the worthy objectives which led to its establishment. Results, in any event, could not be expected to approach potential possibilities in so short a time. The annual reports of the Board suggest that it has recognized the necessity to train leadership before moving into any extended program. This is in itself an objective of large proportions. Leadership in the arts is a subtle affair expressed in the conviction

> . . . that Saskatchewan people have what the country itself has in abundance of resources. "Human resources" differ from natural resources because they are infinitely more precious and harder to discover. . . . Resources like these are intangibles — they take form when people sing together, paint pictures, tell stories, make beautiful things for everyday use, act in plays and of course, enjoy such activities. The stories, songs, customs, the latent talent in our young people, the intermingling of a dozen or more different language groups — the growth and fusion of such things are the concern of the Saskatchewan Arts Board.[13]

The principles on which the program of the Saskatchewan Arts Board is based seem well suited to the continued development of the creative aspects of continuing education. There is already evidence that as the people of the province discover what the Arts Board has to offer, they respond with alacrity; that plans are already being made by voluntary organizations which could quickly absorb the remaining time, staff, and facilities of an already active program. Results so far merit continuation of the Arts Board with emphasis on further experimentation in adapting creative activity to the Saskatchewan environment. Certain precautions are indicated, however. Provision of services by the Board should not include those which can be undertaken by voluntary groups without sacrificing acceptable standards. The Board has a responsibility as well not only to promote the fuller utilization of university personnel and facilities in Saskatoon and Regina, but also to stimulate expansion of their contribution to cultural life. Stimulation, experimentation, leadership training, and the development of high standards should be the keynote of Arts Board activity.

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[11] The Arts Board Act, Rev. Stats. of Sask., c. 180, s. 11.

[12] *Ibid.*

[13] *Sixth Annual Report*, Saskatchewan Arts Board, Queen's Printer, Regina, 1953, p. 2.

There has been some question as to whether the Arts Board should continue its present close affiliation with the Department of Education. At present the Executive Secretary of the Board is attached to the staff of the Adult Education Division. The originators of the Arts Board were guided by the philosophy that the Board should eventually become an independent citizens' organization with decreasing dependence upon direct government aid. With this philosophy this Commission is in complete accord. The objective, however, will be difficult to achieve. The development of a separate staff will entail increasing fixed costs which must be financed by the voluntary organizations or by the activities of the Board. In the opinion of the Commission such an arrangement would mean that the Arts Board would have to sacrifice much of its creative activity and become semi-commercial in its orientation. If this is a realistic danger then there should be every assurance, before complete severance of government ties, that a liberal and permanent grant will be made available by the Provincial Government.

Saskatchewan Recreation Movement

While rural people might be reluctant to admit that they have any "leisure time," the opportunity for recreation is taking on new meaning in an age of mechanized agriculture. In settlement days play was often associated with work when there was need for local co-operative labour in barn raisings, threshing, and so on. Baseball, curling, hockey, and dancing are traditional leisure time activities in rural areas. With the coming of the automobile and a decreasing rural population a transition has been occurring in rural recreation as families seek relaxation beyond the home and immediate locality. This trend, together with the rise of commercial amusements, has caused rural people to become concerned with the quality of play activity available in the rural community. While their concern is directed more towards youth activities, it has implications also for adults. To this extent some brief comment is necessary on play activities in an evaluation of opportunities for continuing education of adults.

Both the federal and provincial governments have recognized the necessity for material assistance and leadership in the development of community recreational activities. In 1944 the Physical Fitness Act was passed and financial support provided by provincial and federal governments for promoting and assisting recreational development. In Saskatchewan the program became known as the Saskatchewan Recreation Movement.

The stated purposes of the Act were to:

(a) assist in the extension of physical education in educational and other establishments;

(b) encourage, develop and correlate all activities relating to physical development of the people through sports, athletics and similar pursuits;

(c) provide for the training of teachers, lecturers and instructors in the principles of physical education and physical fitness;

(d) organize activities designed to promote physical fitness and to provide facilities therefor;

(e) co-operate with organizations in Saskatchewan engaged in the development of the physical fitness of the people.[14]

Those who were responsible for the administration of the Act correctly decided that physical fitness could not be separated from mental, moral, and spiritual fitness. The Saskatchewan Recreation Movement has therefore been inclined to emphasize the fields of crafts, music, woodworking, and drama, as well as dancing, games, and sports. The program of the Physical Fitness Division of the Department of Education has generally been in agreement with the principle of extending government financial assistance through existing organizations and through communities rather than through the establishment of special organizations to serve the needs of a government program.

While considerable activity has been directed towards assisting communities to establish sound recreation programs, the main emphasis of the program has been on the development of recreational activities in the schools and on the training of leadership. These are sound approaches to the long-term development of recreation conscious Saskatchewan communities. Unfortunately, the program of the Division has been sharply curtailed in recent years, thus reducing the permanent impact which could be made on the recreational leadership and habits of the province.[15] A further consequence is that the broader objectives appear to be compromised and a tendency to mere "busyness" has appeared. The Commission recognizes that such curtailment may be necessary in view of the many demands being made upon the public treasury. The failure of the Federal Government to renew the Dominion-Provincial Physical Fitness Agreement is, however, regrettable. There are times when governments start very worthwhile programs with the expectation that significant results will be realized in a relatively short period of time. If this does not occur, the program is then contracted. In general, such expectations are quite unrealistic if programs are dependent upon the voluntary participation of citizens and if new skills are required before citizens can assume responsibility for the desired activity.

A further tendency which appears to have limited the success of the Saskatchewan Recreation Movement is the provision of a large number of small grants requiring a minimum of local initiative. There is merit in considering the further alternative of providing a limited number of substantial grants available to communities or organizations able to demonstrate ability to satisfy fairly rigid requirements before qualifying. On this basis fewer but higher quality programs would be established in those aspects of the total program which are considered to have high priority.

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[14] The Physical Fitness Act, Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 182, s. 5.

[15] In 1954 the Federal Government failed to renew the annual grant.

There is also some need to evaluate the future relationship of the Adult Education Division to the Physical Fitness Division. There is considerable duplication of objectives and programs in these two agencies. Both are concerned with the intellectual, moral, and spiritual fitness of the Saskatchewan population. Both are involved in the "lighted school" program. Economies in personnel, reduced public confusion, and a better integrated program might be realized if the two divisions were amalgamated into a single division of adult education. There is some precedent for this in British Columbia and Alberta where adult education and physical fitness are administered by the same division.

Rural Libraries

Libraries provide the core of any effective adult education program. It may be reasoned that well-equipped libraries, in so far as they provide tools of learning, are adult education institutions. The tools of learning thus provided are primarily materials in print—books, pamphlets, magazines, newspapers. In recent years, a number of new learning tools have been added: films, film strips, phonograph records, and art collections. The library provides then a first requisite to sound continued education for adults—a supply of important tools of learning. Anything done to enlarge the number of these tools or increase their availability to the adult population is, in effect, an enlargement of the adult education program.

The Provincial Government, as in other phases of adult education reviewed in this chapter, has attempted to provide some encouragement in extending library services to the people of the province. A Libraries Act introduced in 1913 provided for a system of travelling libraries to service settlers in rural areas. In 1922 the Open Shelf Library was established to provide by mail books "of literary and educational value for the residents of rural Saskatchewan." These services were consolidated and integrated in the Libraries Act of 1953 and a provincial library was established to "co-operate with any cultural or educational organization, library board or municipality in matters pertaining to the development, organization and operation of any library; and, to provide library services deemed necessary for outlying districts pursuant to the regulations.[16]

The present organization of the provincial library is shown in Figure 35. Library services are made available through this organization to some 700,000 citizens—all those outside the cities of Regina, Saskatoon, Prince Albert, and Moose Jaw. The Travelling Libraries Division serves communities and groups by lending boxes of 60 to 80 books, on the signature of three adults, with express charges payable one way. The collection consists of recreational reading: novels, westerns, mysteries, travel books, biographies, and children's books. The Public Information Library serves individuals by lending books and reference material postpaid for a period of one month or, in special cases, for two weeks. The collection consists of adult non-fiction, magazines, pamphlets, and children's books. In addition, provision is made for assistance and advice in the development, organization, or operation of libraries. The Regional Libraries Division advises communities and groups interested in

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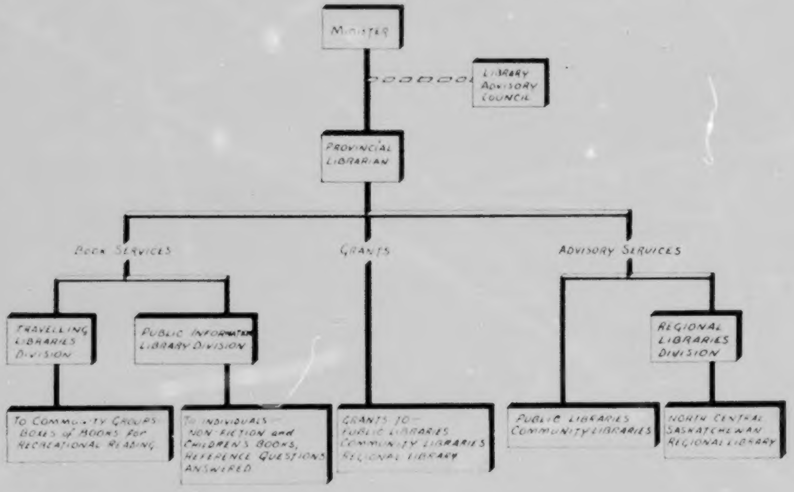
[16] Rev. Stats. of Sask., 1953, c. 187, s. 3.

FIGURE 35. ORGANIZATION OF THE SASKATCHEWAN PROVINCIAL LIBRARY


MINISTER
LIBRARY ADVISORY COUNCIL
PROVINCIAL LIBRARIAN
BOOK SERVICES
GRANTS
ADVISORY SERVICES
TRAVELLING LIBRARIES DIVISION
PUBLIC INFORMATI LIBRARY DIVISION
REGIONAL LIBRARIES DIVISION
TO COMMUNITY GROUPS BOXES OF BOOKS FOR RECREATIONAL READING
TO INDIVIDUALS — NON-FICTION and CHILDREN'S BOOKS, REFERENCE QUESTIONS ANSWERED
GRANTS TO — PUBLIC LIBRARIES COMMUNITY LIBRARIES REGIONAL LIBRARY
PUBLIC LIBRARIES COMMUNITY LIBRARIES
NORTH CENTRAL SASKATCHEWAN REGIONAL LIBRARY

SOURCE: Saskatchewan Provincial Library.

forming a regional library. With the assistance of this Division, the North Central Saskatchewan Regional Library was established in 1950 with headquarters at Prince Albert and with 11 branches.

With this provision for library services by the Provincial Government, how then does Saskatchewan stand with respect to library services and their accessibility? Submissions to this Commission from libraries and library authorities provide a discouraging evaluation. They indicate that, of eight city libraries, only those in Regina and Saskatoon have reached the recommended minimum budget. One consultant identified some city libraries as "haphazard collections of books, whose custodians have little idea of modern library service, which would be impossible to render, in any case, with the extant book stock." The book collections in towns and villages, it was reported, are not only inadequate, but are usually housed in unattractive and inconvenient quarters, open only a few hours a week.

The development of auxiliary library services, such as circulation of phonograph records, musical scores, films, and paintings, has been extremely slow in the province. Films are perhaps most readily available, but only one of the larger libraries has a collection of records. No Saskatchewan library circulates paintings or pictures, it was reported, although Regina and Prince Albert provide room for art exhibits.

If these statements represent a reasonably accurate description of the present state of library services for continuing education programs for rural adults, the situation is barren indeed. Particularly is this true when related to the necessity for ready access to reading materials if the stimulus of discussion groups, forums, and other adult education activities is to be effective in encouraging further study. Nothing here is intended to slight the excellent efforts of the Provincial Library to overcome the limitations of distance and apathy. A study of the statistics of the Library indicate that a useful service is being rendered, and that it should be continued and expanded. Research into the principles of effective library usage, as well as common sense, however, has indicated that unless library services are established within easy travel distance of the potential user the public response will almost certainly be small.

A few years ago, any suggestion that library facilities should be established within easy access of the farm population would have been regarded as fanciful, unless they consisted of a box of books from the Travelling Library. Today there is little to prevent any rural area from having access to an extensive library service in the nearest hamlet or village if the citizens and municipal officials have the will to bring this about. The Libraries Act provides that any municipality may join forces with any other municipality or municipalities in the establishment and operation of a regional public library. The concept of regional libraries did not originate in Saskatchewan. Prince Edward Island, for example, a comparatively poor province, has now established local libraries through a regional system, bringing excellent facilities within walking distance of every adult.

A brief description of the North Central Saskatchewan Regional Library will indicate how well this ingenious method of library organization is able to bring services equivalent to a large city library within easy access of rural residents. For the purpose of forming a regional library, nine local municipal units have entered into an agreement: the City of Prince Albert, the towns of Melfort and Shellbrook, the villages of Leask, Domremy, Weldon, and Beatty, and the rural municipalities of Prince Albert and St. Louis. In 1954, the population in the regional library area was 29,223. Registered borrowers numbered 7,582, 3,950 of whom were adults. The central library is established in the City of Prince Albert and branch libraries are located at convenient points in the member municipalities. Book stocks at each branch library are changed at regular intervals. Each member of a branch library also has access to the services of the central library with relative ease, through the local librarian. The local librarian is in most instances a citizen who contributes his or her part-time services.

Table 104 presents an analysis of the relationship of the services rendered by the regional library to the population of each governmental unit served within the region. It also sheds some light on the extent to which the books are utilized in relation to the financial contribution of each governmental unit. Several conclusions may be drawn. In the first place it is evident that usage of libraries located in city, town, and hamlet centers is fairly closely related to population and financial contribution. A striking contrast, however, is evident in the statistics for the rural municipalities. While the two participating municipalities made up over 20 per cent of the total population they had only 6.5 per cent of the registered membership and circulated only 1.8 per cent of the books. On the other hand the municipalities contributed 12 per cent of the total receipts.

TABLE 104. STATISTICS ON NORTH CENTRAL SASKATCHEWAN REGIONAL LIBRARY, 1954

Participating Unit	Population of Unit	Per Cent of Total Population	Per Cent of Total Members	Per Cent of Total Book Stock	Per Cent of Total Circulation	Per Cent of Total Receipts
Prince Albert	18,500	63.3	73.6	62.3*	72.5	73.4
Melfort	2,980	10.2	11.7	15.9	18.5	9.0
Shellbrook	800	2.7	2.7	4.4	2.9	2.2
Leask	328	1.1	2.3	2.3	2.7	1.0
Domremy	250	0.9	1.6	2.5	0.6	1.1
Weldon	217	0.7	0.7	2.7	0.9	0.7
Beatty	139	0.5	0.9	2.3	0.1	0.6
Rural Municipalities	6,009	20.6	6.5	7.6	1.8†	12.0
Total	29,223	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: Report of the North Central Saskatchewan Regional Library, 1954.

* This percentage reflects inclusion of the reserve book stock from which circulating stock for other units is drawn.

† This percentage reflects incomplete statistics; no report from one branch.

In part the indicated discrepancy is to be expected on the basis of the difference in residence patterns in rural and urban centers. Library research has stressed the paramount importance of proximity of residence to the library.[17] It would therefore be expected that those who reside within a few blocks of the library would make greater use of the service than those who live on dispersed farmsteads several miles from the library. This has been compensated for to some extent in the placement of branches within the rural municipalities. Branches are maintained in the rectory at Bellevue, the Co-op store at Hagen, and the municipal office at Hoey; the Northern Light Branch is maintained in a teacherage.

Other reasons can be cited for the failure of rural people to make greater use of library service. The American Social Science Research Council has made an exhaustive inquiry into the whole library field. Its findings show that members of professional and management groups and their families make more use of libraries than others, as do persons holding positions of leadership in the community. These groups used library facilities two and a half times as frequently as workers and farmers.[18] Various reasons are given for this finding, one of which is that farmers often receive other published materials on farming practices from extension agencies.

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[17] J. H. Kolb and E. de S. Brunner, *A Study of Rural Society,* Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1952, p. 351.

[18] *Ibid.,* p. 351.

Do these interpretations of the operation of the North Central Regional Library imply that regional libraries are not effective in the development of continuing educational opportunities for rural adults? Quite obviously they do not. New techniques are available which overcome in large part the distance factor. One of these is bookmobile service to outlying points—a service recently added by the North Central Regional Library. The brief experience with this service, as well as experience in other areas, strongly indicates that the bookmobile is a unique method of overcoming the influence of distance. Furthermore, library usage is closely related to knowledge and familiarity with the service. And finally, adults who have not had much previous experience with library service must be encouraged and motivated to discover its values. Such encouragement can be supplied generally in the community and specifically through involvement in adult education programs.

A further study of the operation of the North Central Regional Library indicates that it is handicapped by its inability to secure the support of additional municipalities needed to approximate an economic library region. Despite a determined effort to demonstrate the usefulness of the regional library through bookmobile service to the rural municipalities of Buckland and Shellbrook and to the village of Meath Park in 1954, the residents of the rural municipalities failed to vote in favour of the library and under those circumstances, Meath Park could not be included with economy.

The North Central Regional Library is the only one established in Saskatchewan since passage of the Regional Libraries Act in 1946. This does not reflect a lack of effort to establish such services in rural areas. An experienced regional librarian has worked intensively for several years to persuade municipalities to invest the required 25 cents per capita from rural and 37½ cents from urban units. The response has been most disappointing. The Commission is not inclined to assume that this indicates lack of demand for library services in rural areas. Two factors appear to bear an important relationship to the experience. First, those willing to support such a venture without much personal persuasion are often a minority in any municipal election. Second, the evidence submitted by this Commission in another report[19] has indicated that rural municipal councils have been a particularly unresponsive agency for rural improvement. There can be little doubt that the financial circumstances of many rural municipalities are such that municipal councils will reject any suggestion of added taxation.

Several alternatives to the present approach merit careful thought. There is reason to suggest that the larger school unit may be a much more productive source of support. Libraries are educational institutions and it is logical to expect that those who are elected to represent the educational interests of the people will support the establishment of regional libraries with greater understanding and enthusiasm. A combination of two or more larger school units would also greatly simplify organizational problems when compared to a multiplicity of small government units. The wisdom of establishing regional libraries only on the basis of a prior vote might also be questioned. As indicated above, it is almost certain that the project will receive the initial support of only a minority in the community until the experience of ready access to reading material extends the number of supporters. It may be more realistic to require a vote after the library has been established for a period of, say, five years. Finally, it is also apparent that regional libraries have not had the support from the rural leaders of the province which their importance deserves. Provincial organizations with local units have a particularly useful opportunity to facilitate the study and understanding of the values to be derived from rural library service.

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[19] See the Commission's report on Rural Roads and Local Government.

Federal Government

It would be impossible in the space of a single chapter to attempt even a summary review of the activities of the Federal Government in the field of continuing education. Two agencies have been selected for brief consideration. They are the National Film Board and the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. These agencies specialize in the use of mass media of communication. Few inventions have had so profound an effect upon our society as have films, radio and television. Hundreds of experiments have established beyond reasonable doubt that mass persuasion can be achieved by the planned, and even the unplanned, presentation of educational materials through mass media.[20] As communication organizations which influence public thinking on a national scale, the Film Board and the CBC provide special resources for adult education in Saskatchewan.

National Film Board

The National Film Act passed in 1939 provided for the appointment of a National Film Commissioner and a National Film Board of seven members. The Film Board was charged with the task of producing and distributing films which would encourage national unity. Since that time the Film Board has become one of the larger producers of documentary films and has developed an extensive system of distribution for 16 mm. films with special emphasis on the usually neglected rural and remote areas.

A sharp reduction in funds at the end of the war resulted in increased emphasis upon the encouragement of voluntary community organization of film councils to supplement the Board's own film circuits. Contact with the film councils is maintained by field representatives who also work through libraries, help to organize groups, and train projectionists. In every way these men form a useful link between the film makers and the film viewers. The accent is on self-help in voluntary film showings. The film-using groups are expected to organize their own showings and eventually to supply their own equipment. A recent report of the National Film Board, in commenting on the results of such activity, stated that "the self-sustaining policy has resulted in groups organizing film distribution, training projectionists and purchasing films and equipment. A corollary has been the steady increase in organizations belonging to film councils and in the number of film circuits.[21]

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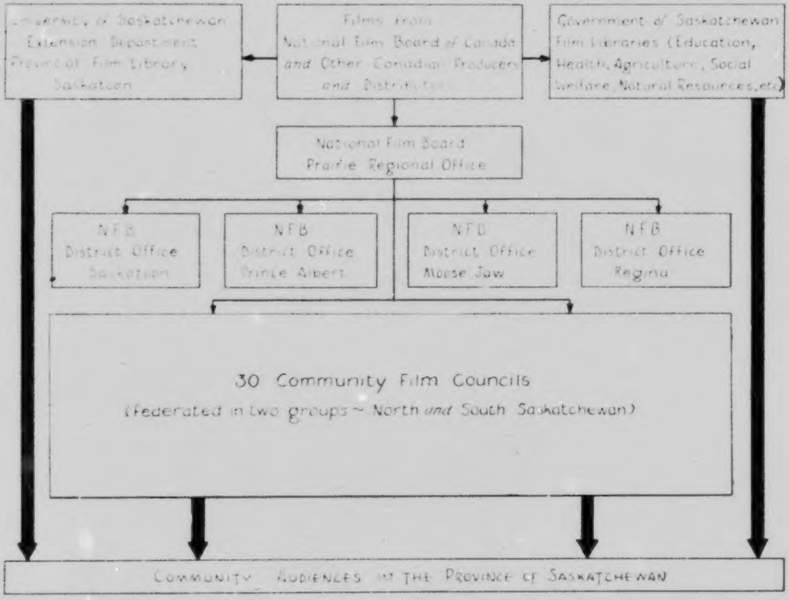
[20] See W. Schramm, *The Process and Effects of Mass Communication,* University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Illinois, 1955, p. 289.

A word about the way in which the voluntary distribution network operates will further verify its useful contribution. In 1954-55 there were two film council federations and 30 film councils in Saskatchewan (Figure 36). Each council represents a number of film-using groups—schools, farm organizations, service clubs, women's groups, and so on. Working through the film council, these affiliated groups pool resources for the purchase of equipment and distribution of films. Films are distributed by the Film Board on a voluntary basis through film circuits made up of chains of community centers. The cooperating voluntary groups are then responsible for moving blocks of films from one center to the next. Central depots are maintained in libraries and in the Adult Education Service of the University. Over 17,000 showings to an audience of just less than a million people were reported in 1954-55. Over 11,000 of the showings were in rural communities.

How do the documentary films of the Board contribute to continuing education in Saskatchewan? By

FIGURE 36. FILM DISTRIBUTION CHANNELS IN THE PROVINCE OF SASKATCHEWAN


University of Saskatchewan Extension Department Provincial Film Library, Saskatoon
Films from National Film Board of Canada and Other Canadian Producers and Distributors
Government of Saskatchewan Film Libraries (Education, Health, Agriculture, Social Welfare, Natural Resources, etc)
National Film Board Prairie Regional Office
NFB District Office Saskatoon
NFB District Office Prince Albert
NFB District Office Moose Jaw
NFB District Office Regina
30 Community Film Councils
(Federated in two groups ~ North and South Saskatchewan)
COMMUNITY AUDIENCES IN THE PROVINCE OF SASKATCHEWAN

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[21] *Annual Report,* National Film Board, 1953-54, Queen's Printer, Ottawa, p. 14.

producing films on a wide range of topics of national and regional interest, a rich resource is provided to stimulate thought and discussion. Through the medium of films, Saskatchewan adults can visually share in the experience of a distant community in solving its social problems, in the tribulations of a group striving to achieve skill in effective discussion, or in the culture of a distant country struggling to achieve a new destiny. When the usefulness of such films is understood by the adult educator a vast new range of teaching material is added to his skill as a communicator of ideas.

The Commission hesitates to offer any suggestion for the further improvement of the services rendered by the National Film Board on the basis of limited analysis. The primary objection which has been voiced by several consultants, and which seems supported by the listing of films produced by the Board, is that neither the prairie region nor the rural community has been adequately represented in production themes. The Commission has noted that a number of excellent films associated with the prairie environment have been produced. It recognizes also that since film production is at present centered in the East, considerable cost is involved in any suggested increase in Western productions. It is also probable that much is to be said against a policy of striving to meet sectional interests in a Board designed to represent the nation on film. The Commission would nevertheless urge that more attention be given to the production of films depicting social and economic aspects of the western environment. Perhaps further advantages could be realized by the establishment of a regional film board which could give more specific attention to the film production needs of the prairies.

The Provincial Government also might seek ways whereby the financial resources of the province could be utilized to encourage the production of several films documenting situations of specific interest to continuing education in Saskatchewan. These suggestions are intended only to indicate that opportunities for the more effective use of the services of the Film Board might be created, but provincial initiative and imagination may be necessary in experimenting with new arrangements.

The production of films is, of course, only the beginning of the effective use of film in continuing the education of adults. Films once produced must be utilized. To be utilized considerable effort should be expended in developing methods of study and discussion. In this respect the province can and does exercise much responsibility, particularly through the offices of the Saskatchewan Audio-Visual Board.

Canadian Broadcasting Corporation

The Canadian Broadcasting Corporation was established in 1936 in order to ensure national coverage for Canadian programs and to make the general educational services of an important communication medium available to all sections of the nation. With the introduction of television into Canada in recent years a new and particularly heavy responsibility has been placed upon the CBC. The control and direction of one of the most powerful media of mass communication is thus a matter of vital public policy. Despite periodic objections to such policy by private interests it has received the continued support of parliamentary committees and a number of other investigating bodies. With such continued support this Commission is in complete accord. In this age of extreme commercialism, it seems particularly important that the CBC continue not only as a producing organization but also as the controlling agent of the networks. In the context of this analysis of continuing education there seems little doubt that the Canadian public has benefited by public information programs of high standard and by creative and artistic programming of great value.

Without implying that other features of the programming of the CBC are of less significance, the Commission wishes to offer brief comment on two unique contributions to twentieth century continuing education which appear to hold great promise if adequately utilized by the Saskatchewan public. They are the Citizens' Forum and National Farm Radio Forum. While the former activity has featured subject matter more directly appealing to urban audiences and the latter has been considered of greater interest to rural dwellers, the essential features of the two programs are sufficiently similar to permit parallel treatment.

The concept of the radio forum centers on the presentation of stimulating educational materials by mass media followed by discussion in neighbourhood groups across the nation. The national offices of the respective forums arrange for panels of Canadian leaders who, through radio broadcasts, attempt to create an appreciation of the nature of the issues under discussion. Concise and objectively prepared pamphlets are also provided complete with suggested discussion materials. The radio presentation and the pamphlets are thus the mass media used to present information and points of view into the neighbourhood discussion groups. The discussion groups formulate their own opinions on the subject and their conclusions are sent to the provincial forum secretary located, in Saskatchewan, in the extension department of the University. The forum conclusions are then summarized and reported back to the groups by the provincial secretaries as part of the next week's broadcast. The findings of forums across the nation are then further summarized at the national office and provide a useful index of public opinion to governments, organizations, and other interested agencies. There is much truth in the suggestion that Citizens' Forum and National Farm Radio Forum are Canadian adaptations of the Scandinavian folk schools.

The potential contribution of the forums to the development of a socially and politically responsible citizenry appears significant. The topics selected for discussion during a winter series represent current questions affecting the family, the community, or national and international welfare. The discussions frequently relate to important questions of government with the avowed purpose of examining the merits of policy and execution. In an age of increasing public apathy towards complex social and economic issues, the forums represent an experiment in modern democracy of far-reaching consequence.

How successful have the forums been in Saskatchewan? It is difficult to provide a satisfactory analysis of this question. In the first place the listening audience is no doubt much larger than the number of discussion groups would suggest. In the second place all discussion groups do not benefit in like degree as the result of an evening of listening and conversation. Some groups take the opportunity seriously, even to the point of inviting resource persons to assist the group, while others consider the social aspects of greater importance than the educational opportunity. With these qualifications in mind, Table 105 depicts the experience of the Saskatchewan Farm Radio Forum in the period 1946-1955. On the average over this period, 677 farm people each week attended 107 forums of between 6 and 7 members each. The largest number of forums was in 1948-49 with 969 persons in average weekly attendance. Both number of forums and weekly attendance have been in almost consistent decline since that time.

The average membership per forum verifies the essential neighbourhood basis of the forums. The 1946-1955 average of 6.5 persons per forum suggests that two or three families meet in farm homes for the Monday night broadcasts. Comparable statistics are not available on the Citizens' Forum. In general the response to Citizens' Forum has been significantly lower. In recent years the number of actively reporting Citizens' Forums in the province has declined to less than ten. A distinction should be made, however, between the listening audience as distinct from the groups. While no direct evidence is available, the number of listeners is thought to be very high. The program is now produced on television, and its influence may greatly increase as a consequence.

The Commission can only conclude from these statistics that the forums have not been successful in Saskatchewan up to the time of writing this report. Several reasons have been advanced for this: that the small membership and seasonal nature of the program make for impermanence; that farmers residing in town during the winter months are not inclined to support forum discussions and those who remain on the farm find neighbourly activity more difficult; that farm organization is more advanced on the prairies, thus the forums are unable to compete for time effectively. Yet, these reasons cannot entirely explain the low response in the province. There are literally thousands of two-, three-, and four-family groups in Saskatchewan which could conveniently meet one evening per week. The required organization and the responsibilities of reporting are relatively simple.

TABLE 105. AVERAGE WEEKLY ATTENDANCE, FARM RADIO FORUM, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946-1955

	1946-47	1947-48	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	Averages
Total forums	97	130	144	142	118	107	87	69	68	106.9
Average weekly attendance	453	802	969	860	653	664	657	545	494	677.4
Average membership per forum*	4.7	6.2	6.7	6.1	5.5	6.2	7.6	7.9	7.3	6.5

SOURCE: Unpublished data provided by Extension Department, University of Saskatchewan.

* The lower average membership per forum in the early years is explained in part by the inclusion of one-family forums as discussion groups.

Some of the responsibility for low participation may lie with the forums themselves. On various counts a number of criticisms have been levelled at the programs. Forum topics, announced well ahead of broadcast dates, are sometimes less timely than they should be. As a result the forums tend to lose some of the vitality and interest which goes with discussing issues at the height of public interest. In part this difficulty is overcome by the "fourth night" discussions on Farm Forum for which topics are not assigned too far in advance. Nevertheless, methods of introducing flexibility into this aspect of programming should be explored.

Some critics hold that interest has lagged because of the forums' tendency to repeat programs from year to year. A more basic complaint is that the amount of time allowed on each broadcast for national discussion is too short. Because it is impossible to include sufficient information in 20 to 25 minutes, it is argued, local groups have an inadequate base from which to launch a discussion. A suggestion reflecting similar criticism would have the forums extend discussions of complex subjects over several weeks rather than try to compress too much into a single program. A further alternative is one of using the weekly radio broadcasts to evaluate forum opinions expressed by participants of the previous week's program. In this way there could be a more precise broadening of public understanding.

Whether or not these criticisms are fully justified, it is apparent that the CBC and its associated agencies have not exhausted possible techniques for improving the forums. Greater willingness to experiment with these unique and valuable educational instruments would reveal new methods of correcting weaknesses and of keeping pace with changing needs.

Whatever the faults of the programs themselves, the Commission must conclude that one major deficiency lies in the limited enthusiasm and support received from provincial organizations and leadership. It will be apparent that no amount of improvement in the nature of the broadcasts will increase the number of forums without genuine effort to organize them and to keep them functioning. The objection has been heard that the forums may become competing community organizations. The evidence clearly does not support this objection. The forums are neighbourhood groups and do not in any way resemble community groups. Perhaps the central problem is the low priority which is given to forum activities. To overcome this problem the forums will have to be more closely related to the ongoing activities of organizations. Earlier reference has been made to the tendency for voluntary organizations to pass resolutions without stimulating the basic understanding of the issues to which resolutions often relate. The forums, if taken seriously, provide an important tool in overcoming this deficiency. There is reason to suggest that organizations could actively sponsor forums as part of a winter program supplemented by study materials on some of the key issues of concern to the membership. A local lodge of the Farmers Union, for example, could readily arrange for neighbourhood meetings and provide the means for summarizing opinion on a total community basis. Unless organizations recognize the general service function provided by the forum program the number of forums will continue to decline.

It would appear that the university and the co-operating organizations could also increase the support given to the forums. At no time have the provincial secretaries been able to devote full attention to providing the leadership which the program merits. This is true even in the active season. Without strong leadership from the provincial forum office it can be expected that response will decrease after the initial novelty of the program disappears. The provincial office could also give attention to the preparation of supplementary materials further relating the topic under discussion to provincial conditions. More attention could be given to work with the provincial libraries in preparing lists of reference materials. There is much to be done in encouraging a closer association of libraries and the listening groups. The British Broadcasting Corporation in Great Britain, for example, publishes an eight page pamphlet *Listen and Learn* which details programs for the "serious listener" and indicates follow-up possibilities in adult classes, residential courses, and so forth. To neglect these aspects (without implying an overburdening of forums with educational materials) is to miss an important opportunity to create a better informed public. Few issues of the present day can be discussed on the basis of localized experience alone; opinions plus carefully assembled factual data are essential.

In summary, Citizens' Forum and Farm Radio Forum provide an unprecedented technique for advancing adult education. Response to this opportunity in Saskatchewan has been severely limited. Despite the many useful reasons given in explanation, the Commission has concluded that the neighbourhood nature of the forums presents no serious obstacles to a substantial increase in forum activity. A review of support given to the program by provincial organizations and by the University strongly suggests that the importance of the forums as an educational technique has not been fully understood.

The programs themselves should be carefully analysed by the CBC to adapt them to the changing circumstances of rural living and to correct weaknesses. As the new medium of television is extended into the farm homes of Saskatchewan, a particularly promising opportunity will be presented for the development of an informed citizenry. Every opportunity should be taken to see that the new medium is so utilized as to further enhance the people's proprietorship in their broadcasting system. This can only be accomplished, in the opinion of this Commission, by maintaining and strengthening the CBC's role in television.

Evaluation of the Role of Government in Continuing Education

It is apparent that both provincial and federal governments are heavily committed to the encouragement of programs for the continued education of adults. Even this cursory review will support the conclusion that it is no longer a question of whether governments ought to assume such responsibility; the question is one of how much responsibility and in what ways should such responsibility be assumed.

Obviously both governments have recognized the necessity for emphasis upon the contribution of voluntary citizen organizations. It is equally apparent that both governments have indicated willingness to invest public moneys in the continuing education of adults.

It is much more difficult to assess the substances or content of government contributions. In varying degree, both governments have been active in stimulating the development of citizen activity in the cultural arts and recreation. Assessment is much more difficult in the preparation of rural citizens for social and political responsibility. Certainly the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation and the National Film Board are significant contributors in the federal field. Citizens' Forum and National Farm Radio Forum represent two direct approaches involving the national radio network. Unfortunately neither of these programs have achieved an acceptable degree of success in Saskatchewan.

On the basis of the programs examined, the Government of Saskatchewan appears to be only indirectly involved with the promotion of serious study of social and economic affairs.[22] There are a number of instances in which it has encouraged such activities under the sponsorship of voluntary organizations; the Saskatchewan Council on Public Affairs, the Farmer-Labour-Teacher Institute, and the Group Development Institute are examples. There is limited evidence, however, of a clearly defined policy directed towards encouraging a concerted approach on a province-wide scale. Under the circumstances of the times it seems imperative that nothing short of such an approach can be considered satisfactory. Perhaps the absence of such a policy, in contrast to the Federal Government, is explained by the greater difficulty of access to the mass communication media of radio and film. Whatever the explanation, there is need for a more concerted approach to the education of adult citizens for social and political responsibilities.

If the assumption is made that the Government of Saskatchewan does not have ready access to the mass media of communication—radio, television and film—what then are the alternatives? The most effective avenue for continuing education in terms of numbers, enthusiasm and independence are the voluntary organizations discussed above. Ways and means have already been developed and should be further developed whereby the financial and technical resources of the government can be brought to bear upon the apparent limitations of the voluntary group. The greatest obstacle to serious social and economic studies by citizen groups appears to be financial. To overcome this obstacle, a greatly expanded program of government grants, patterned after the system prevailing in Great Britain, merits careful study. To ensure the best use of such assistance some arrangement would be necessary to facilitate the establishment of acceptable objectives and priorities by the voluntary organizations themselves.

If effective means are found to utilize the financial resources of the government through a coordinating body, some attention should be given to integrating those activities of the Department of

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[22] An important though indirect exception to this was the appointment of this Commission to undertake a comprehensive analysis of social and economic development.

Education focused on adult education. One significant indication that there may be some doubt as to the need for a special Adult Education Division is the separation of some of the basic tools of adult education into branches or divisions of the Department of Education. The film services of the Department are administered by a separate branch. Mention has already been made of the separation of the administration of the Physical Fitness and Recreation Division. The Commission is not prepared to recommend on the basis of its limited study that these various services be amalgamated into a single division of adult education. It does wish to point out, however, that such separation greatly increases the difficulty of developing a strong and integrated program within the Department of Education.

Libraries are under the direction of the Provincial Librarian. As these contain basic information tools, there may be merit in studying their relation to adult education program services.

Finally, the examination of even a limited range of programs serves to emphasize the importance of a redefinition of the objectives and organization of continuing education in Saskatchewan. Since the essential ingredient of the education of adults is freedom of inquiry and personal initiative, any suggestion of central control or direction is to be avoided. It would be consistent therefore to suggest that an early conference be held of all organizations and agencies with interest in continuing education. Such a conference could carefully evaluate the findings and recommendations of this Commission on continuing education, and determine the extent of agreement on these new definitions of responsibility.

CONTINUING EDUCATION AND THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

Whatever provision may be made at the provincial level for continuing education into adult years by organizations, government, or university, their final worth is measured by the contribution made to individual and community development. The manner in which provincial programs are channelled into the tissue of community living remains a primary question to be explored. One might well begin to ask at this point whether there is not some meeting place between the formal school system and the education of adults. If there is to be a merging, then the obvious place to look for it is in the school in the local community.

The local school is rooted firmly in every rural community as a center established to provide specialized educational services. In an earlier era, when a school house was within sight of almost every family, it was regarded as a neighbourhood social center; many educational and recreational activities of adults were carried on there. With a changing rural environment, the trend is necessarily towards the closing of these early centers, and towards their transfer to a nearby village. In terms of distance the automobile has meant that the school is about as close to the farm family, in a physical sense, as it ever was. Unfortunately this does not yet appear to be true in a psychological sense. The tendency is to think of the school as a formal classroom; distance has resulted in some loss of its neighbourly character. While this may be transitory, it is a factor in recognizing the the school as a community center.

Continuing education for adults is not yet a conscious objective of rural educators. Nor is the contribution to be made by the teacher recognized in our culture as it is in the culture of Western Europe. Perhaps this is a partial explanation of concern for the acceptance of the teacher expressed so frequently in community forums. On the other hand, there is some loss for the teacher, because organizing and conducting continuing educational activities fosters mature insight into the life of the community. All teachers cannot, of course, become adult educators. After accepting this, it nevertheless seems true that more attention could be given to the question of school-community relations in our teacher training programs. Unless there is some reinterpretation of the role of the teacher in the community it is doubtful whether the school will expand its functions to serve the whole community.

Those who are responsible for the administration of the local school system have not had much time to devote to aspects of rural education beyond the years of formal schooling. In the last decade the task of establishing larger school units and, more recently, the task of regrouping rural schools, has been absorbing most of the energies and attention of local educational leaders. These difficult and vital adjustments can be expected to continue for some time to come. Once they have been completed we can expect to see an expanding concern for the more qualitative aspects of rural education.

Farm families as taxpayers have not yet indicated either the desire or the willingness to establish opportunities for continuing their education. In many instances, considerable progress is still to be made in general acceptance of complete high school education for farm children. Until sufficient experience is provided to whet the public appetite, the present situation can be expected to continue. This seems true despite the fact that increased leisure time made possible by mechanization, ease of travel permitted by the automobile, and generally rising standards of living enhance the opportunity for personal and community enrichment. This does not imply that there are not a large number of citizens who do desire to continue their education. Many such appeals were directed to the Commission in community hearings. But for the moment those who recognize the need remain in the minority. It is on this informed nucleus, however, that further progress will depend.

All of these interpretations lead to the conclusion that, at least in the immediate future, the local school will probably be unresponsive in taking the initiative for leadership in adult education. In the long run the concept of the school in the service of the entire community is sound and should be pursued with increased vigour. In the meantime the primary emphasis could well be placed upon the leadership of voluntary organization.

With some encouragement from educational administrators and teachers, the school could become the center for a growing number of community activities. If this is to be done, consistent policies adapted to the different needs of voluntary organizations should be developed. If the school is to serve the community, for example, the charging of more than nominal rentals to community groups cannot be supported. Use of the school will often mean inconvenience, but without inconvenience there can be little responsive public service. Greater attention should be given to the provision of facilities for community-centered activities when new school buildings are being constructed. This will be particularly important in the next decade when the trend towards the centralization of school facilities accelerates. Simple but significant features such as kitchens and committee rooms can be added at small cost. Such facilities do much to encourage citizens to look to the school for broader service. Greater awareness of the role of the school in the community and a more incisive support of improved standards of education for rural youth will then become apparent.

Reference has already been made to the wide range of organizations already found in the average community. Often these organizations are the local arm of provincial bodies and therefore reflect the policies and programs which provincial executives seek to encourage. Mention has also been made of the tendency towards overorganization of rural communities. The institutional structure is further complicated by the emergence of the larger trade-centered community. The delay in refocusing organizational interests, so that new trends in the association of families are utilized, can be expected to persist for some time.

If the idea of establishing the roots of the community school through the activities of voluntary organizations is to thrive, some immediate progress will be necessary in the co-ordination of activities. The idea of community councils has been adopted in many Canadian and American cities. There are few rural communities, if any, in Saskatchewan where such councils are found. Yet they offer a highly effective method of giving substance and focus to local continuing education. Ways of implementing community councils may have to vary from locality to locality, but the need for the means of assessing the whole community is imperative.

Most organizations recognize the problems of clarifying the contribution each is best equipped to make, of co-ordinating the activities of organizations with overlapping objectives, and of discovering and developing programs to meet the growing needs of the modern rural community. To overcome these difficulties does not require the setting up of new organizations; it requires primarily more effective channeling of existing programs. The implication of surveying the total resources of the community will receive detailed consideration in a later report of the Commission. A modest start can be made through the establishment of continuing education councils to facilitate concerted approaches in existing programs. Any organization can take the initiative; in most instances, assuming a correct approach, some immediate success can be anticipated.

Once such councils have been established, a wide range of additional opportunities exist. If the local school board is represented on the council, then the physical and technical resources of the school will be examined. This implies that the school can and should become the physical center of the community for co-operative meetings, youth groups, recreation and other groups in the community setting. The work of the local councils could in turn be supplemented by the liberal system of grants proposed in an earlier section. Finally, a medium will be provided through which the limited number of leaders in social and economic affairs, cultural arts, and recreation can be utilized with greater effectiveness.

The suggestion that the local school should become a center for adult education does not imply that the program would be operated by the principal. To do so would be fatal to the essential voluntary basis for participation. It does mean, however, that the principal may become active in the planning and administration of a local program developed in co-operation with a board or council of citizens.

These, then, are some of the main problems involved in community organization for continuing education. In general, the more important resources for such opportunities already exist; very little additional organization ought to be required for new focus and vitality. The central need is one of better order in the stream of activity and a growing concern for its quality. The co-ordinating step thus required will be difficult and will call for patience and understanding. Some failures can be anticipated. In the end, however, it seems not too unrealistic to assume that there may finally be a merging of the education of youth and the education of adults.

SUMMARY

Continuing education extends the opportunity to learn into the adult years. Almost infinite variety exists in the subject matter and method. Continuing education differs in several respects from formal schooling; attendance is voluntary, teachers are not endowed with the same degree of authority, and, the students are individuals of mature years. These differences combine to make continuing education a challenging but difficult responsibility.

Three broad areas of interest can be identified; social and economic affairs, the cultural arts, and recreation. The groups primarily responsible include voluntary citizen organizations, governments, and universities. Of the three groups, voluntary organizations are the more significant whether measured in terms of numbers of citizens involved, leadership, or enthusiasm and initiative. Governments and universities have a determining influence, however, by virtue of financial and technical resources.

Despite the prolific activities of voluntary organizations, a number of limitations are apparent. In the average community competition for membership time and for leadership is prevalent. Changes from the early neighbourhood to larger trade-centered communities have not yet been reflected in unified activity. Problems of finance place serious limits on the ability of voluntary groups to develop programs in balance with the requirements of adult citizens in a modern democratic society. Yet voluntary citizen groups are influential in a changing society; their relationship to governments in defining public policies is significant. There is much to be said for an informal arrangement to facilitate review of objectives and establishment of priorities in provincial programs.

With this there could be an associated program of liberal government grants designed to assist voluntary agencies in the development of continued learning for adult citizens. The need for this is particularly apparent in the preparation of citizens for social and political responsibility.

Only in the last 75 years have universities recognized their responsibility to the wider public. There is now general agreement that they should be a primary source of the knowledge, personnel, and skills essential to present day requirements of continuing education. Particularly serious deficiencies are evident in the University of Saskatchewan; these deficiencies require sober reflection by those responsible for educational policy. Since the professionally trained person provides a key source of voluntary leadership, training beyond the technical skills is imperative. The exacting responsibilities of the adult educator require facilities for special training in the humanities and social sciences. Continued research in both of these areas is necessary for effective training. Yet, in common with other Canadian universities, the University of Saskatchewan gives minimal attention to these two areas of knowledge. This is true whether measured in terms of available personnel, finance, or available training and research activity. Unless these deficiencies are corrected, continuing education in Saskatchewan will be retarded and indeed neglected at one of the most critical points.

UNESCO criteria have been applied in striving to define the appropriate role of the university. In general the defined role is one of developing a technical adult extension service of high standard. New programs of a non-technical nature, once established, should not continue to absorb the resources of the university. Training and research in the humanities and social sciences combined with mastery of adult education as a field of knowledge should be the theme of the university's contribution. Before this can be accomplished, a fundamental re-evaluation by educational leaders of the role of the university in continuing education will be necessary.

There is no longer any question of the need for contributions by governments to continuing education. Questions now revolve around the nature and extent of that contribution. The answers have been the subject of debate dating back to the Greek philosophers. Yet it is evident that formal participation of governments in improving the material welfare of citizens has far outpaced their participation in education for the exercise of democratic responsibilities. Popular opinion exerts a decisive influence on the executive functions of government. Means must be found to create conditions necessary to more effective formation of informed opinion about social and economic affairs. The fact that this task must inevitably reflect political and philosophical views of life need not be a deterring factor.

An inflexible rule is that state machinery cannot be used to perpetuate the ideas of the government of the day. It is the task of government to see that continuing education develops in an atmosphere of free inquiry. It can pursue this course in a number of ways; through liberal grants made available to voluntary citizen organizations, through the encouragement of citizens' councils whereby independent decisions as to policy and program can be defined, through the provision of facilities and technical personnel.

As with the University of Saskatchewan, clarification is needed with respect to the role which the provincial government can and ought to play in an expanded and more vital program of continuing education in the next quarter century. Once the Provincial Government's role has been defined, the necessary administrative organization can be established with economy in personnel and finance.

The final test of the merit of any provincial policies and programs for continuing the education of adults, whether by voluntary organizations, government or university, will be found in their acceptance by citizens in rural communities throughout Saskatchewan. While the local school logically provides a convenient center at which formal education for youth can blend with the education of adults, there are reasons to conclude that the time for this has not yet arrived. In the meantime, the concept of the school as a center at the service of the entire community should be pursued with increased vigour. A modest beginning can be made through the pooled resources of local voluntary organizations in the form of citizens' councils. Little if any new organization is necessary; one or more existing organizations can take the initiative. If care is taken to center community programs in the school, then the concept of broad citizen preparation for life in a modern democracy will be on the way to eventual realization.

CHAPTER XII

Solutions to Problems in Education: The Proposals of Rural People

Rural people in their communities and through their organizations made numerous recommendations to meet the problems of education which they defined.[1] Their proposals take into account the changing economic and social environment in rural Saskatchewan and are geared to the attainment of improved standards of education.

Shortage of Qualified Teachers

The shortage of qualified teachers was considered the most crucial problem in rural education. Many communities were being served by unqualified teachers, and still others had lost the services of their local school because of the shortage of teachers. Proposals to remedy the the shortage of qualified teachers included increased regrouping of school facilities, higher salaries, improved living conditions, higher standards of training for teachers, and financial assistance to teachers in training.

Regrouping of School Facilities

A number of rural communities endorsed the regrouping of school facilities as a measure to increase the supply of teachers. Teachers can be more economically utilized in central schools with adequate enrolments, and qualified teachers can be attracted to serve in well-equipped central schools. The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association,* in pointing out that the problem was not so much a shortage of teachers as an overabundance of classrooms relative to enrolment, suggested that the solution lies in reducing the demand for teachers "rather than trying to create a supply beyond that which can be reasonably expected."

Increased Salaries

Although rural people felt that the need for teachers could be reduced by more extensive centralization of facilities, their main proposal was to increase teachers' salaries. Forty-four per cent of community briefs dealing with education recommended the payment of adequate salaries. Sixteen per cent urged salaries comparable with those of other professions.

The *Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation* brief endorsed the scale of salaries recommended by the Conference of Western Teachers, as follows:

	Minimum $	Maximum $
1) 1 year's training	2,200	4,000
2 years' training	2,500	4,500
3 years' training	2,800	5,000
4 years' training	3,100	5,500
5 years' training	3,400	6,000
6 years' training	3,700	6,500
7 years' training	4,000	7,000

2) Partial allowances: $60.00 per university course.

3) Annual increments: At least $200.00 per year.

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[1] See Chapter II.

4) Allowance for previous experience:
   a) Full credit for each year of training.
   b) Full credit for each year of war or auxiliary service.

5) Allowance for administration and supervision:
   a) **Principal**
      Elementary rooms, $100.00 per room up to twelve rooms.
      Intermediate and high school rooms, $125.00 per room up to twelve rooms.
      Over twelve rooms, allowance per room on graduated scale.
   b) **Vice-Principal**
      One-half of allowance for principals.

6) Allowances for extra-curricular activities: A stipulated amount for each unit of work in connection with extra-curricular activities.

7) Sick leave: Cumulative to a maximum of two hundred days.

The *Saskatchewan Women's Cooperative Guild* also urged generally improved salary schedules and recognition of the principal of equal pay for equal work:

> "Salary schedules should attract the finest calibre of people who want to make teaching their profession. They should make it possible for such people to stay with the job and to keep up with the trends in methods and to keep themselves fully qualifed for their job. Salaries should be equal pay for equal qualifications, regardless of sex of teacher, regardless of whether teaching in rural or urban schools, and regardless of grade taught."

A school superintendent presented the teachers' viewpoint:

> "The public will have to realize that teachers are entitled to the normal amenities and practical needs of life. Teachers want comfortable homes, they need cars, and other things which the average citizen takes for granted. Without incomes supplementary to their salary, few of these needs will be properly met. Ways will have to be found to decrease further the total number of teachers in the province, and to increase the amount of salary money available, so that the income of teachers who make instruction their life work can be raised to an equitable level."

While there was general recognition of the need for improvement in all salary schedules, a few specific suggestions were made as well. *Montmartre* pointed out that teachers "in rural schools having more grades to teach, lack of equipment, have a more difficult job, therefore should receive higher wages." *Eston* claimed that remuneration for teachers was adequate "except in outlying districts." *Alameda* suggested income tax deduction "for money spent in furthering education," and *Pennant* felt that the "cost of teachers' transportation to and from school ought to be exempt from income tax."

Weyburn drew attention to the questions of increments and adequate pension schemes. The judgment of the *Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation* of the present superannuation plan was presented in this way:

> "Scores of teachers, before they decide to cease teaching in this province, have written to us wishing to know what their superannuation allowance would be if they continued to teach in Saskatchewan. Unfortunately, our reply, based on the provisions of the present Act, has too often indicated an amount which was not sufficient to persuade the person to continue to teach in Saskatchewan. It should be noted that it is frequently our most alert and promising teachers who have been raised in this province who consult us about the potential benefits of superannuation and who say, 'too little and too late'."

In addition to increments and pension plans, the *Federation* included in its list of fringe benefits "sabbatical leave, accumulative sick leave, isolation bonuses, contributory group insurance and improved recognition for administrative responsibilities." The Federation pointed out that "where these benefits have been incorporated by a school unit into the schedule they have had the effect of retaining teachers within the school system."

Improved Living Conditions

Numerous communities and local organizations indicated that the inadequacy of living accommodations stands in the way of acquiring and retaining teachers. Forty-six per cent of community briefs dealing with education stated that it was the responsibility of local organizations and the local government agency to "improve teachers' living accommodation." The *Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation* made the following recommendations:

> "A survey of teacherages in many areas would indicate that teachers are expected to live under substandard conditions. School units must be given credit for their progressive teacherage policies but much remains to be done. We suggest that the regulations covering Department of Education grants for teacherages be revised. The maximum of $200 per teacherage is ridiculously inadequate in this day and age. We recommend that there be strict supervision by the Department of Education of the construction of teacherages and that they be large enough for family living and up to date as to insulation, cupboards, water supply and electricity."

Higher Standards of Training

Despite the shortage of teachers even with minimum qualifications, the majority of rural ratepayers were insistent that standards should not be sacrificed in an effort to acquire an adequate number of teachers. Almost one-third of the communities urged the raising of standards for the qualifications of teachers.

The *College of Education of the University of Saskatchewan,* in discussing the development of a teacher training program, referred to the changes taking place in the educational system:

> "The movement towards centralizing the high school program of a community in a large town within the community, and the offering of a variety of courses in such high schools, is increasing the demand for teachers qualified to teach such specialized courses as: Agriculture, Commercial Classes, Technical Courses, Physical Education and Household Science."

The College contended that local authorities should:

> ". . . refrain from offering a course until such time as a teacher with the proper qualifications is available. . . . It is obvious that a person must be master of the material he teaches. It is not quite so obvious, but in the opinion of the college, just as necessary, for the persons to be a master of the art of teaching. . . . The college therefore holds that the preparation of all teachers, both academic and specialists in other fields, should include: (a) a thorough foundation in the content material in a particular field, (b) a broad general education, and (c) a minimum of one year of professional training."

To provide the standard of instruction which it considered essential, the *College of Education* recommended "that steps be taken to increase the amount of training received initially by teachers to at least two years, and, to as great an extent as possible, four years."

The *Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation* supported the plea for longer training:

> "If one year of professional training was ever sufficient for teachers, it is not so today. One-year teacher training colleges feel that the best they can do in such a short period of time is to provide a program which will result in improvement of the cultural background of the student. Satisfaction is expressed when the year shows a maturing of the student emotionally and socially. Development of personality seems to be emphasized. It is doubted that any member of the staff of our Teacher Training Colleges which provide only one year of training would express the opinion that the year's program is adequate in preparing a person for the teaching profession. . . . A minimum of two years of training should be required for all candidates for the profession."

The student body of the *Moose Jaw Teachers College* also agreed with the recommendation for extension of the teacher training period to two years and added the further requirement that "teachers be required to obtain a degree within the ensuing five years."

While professional educators and trainees recommended a lengthening of the training course, the lay public suggested instead improvement in the present training setup. *Wiseton* recommended the requirement of higher average marks "both entering and graduating from Normal." *Weyburn* stressed the need for "a careful selection of candidates admitted to Teacher Training Schools." *Estevan* felt that more practical teaching should be included in the training period. "Normal school courses could be shortened and divided into training periods. This would allow students to gain experience and a better insight into the problems of teaching." *Punnichy* suggested "a summer vocational course for Grade XI and XII students who plan on being teachers." A school superintendent suggested a similar plan:

> ". . . a modification of the present requirement for enrolling in Teachers College. At present a candidate is required to have credit for at least six subjects of Grade XII and attend Teachers College for one year before qualifying for an Interim or Conditional certificate. It is suggested that a potential candidate should have an option of the present plan or be able to enroll in college after Grade XI and take two years' training preparatory to teaching."

With reference to the type of training for student teachers, numerous suggestions were made, most of which reflected a special interest of the proponent. The *Saskatchewan Agricultural Societies' Association* thus indicated the need for teachers to be able to impart an appreciation of rural life. The *Saskatchewan Women's Co-operative Guild* recommended that teachers in training attain

> "an understanding of the principles and practices of the co-operative movement, which will make our educators more aware of the movement and the part it can and is playing in the stabilizing of the economy of our nation. They must be equipped with more than just the ability to impart information about the movement; they must be able to engender such standards of values that attitudes regarding responsibilities as citizens will make for true co-operators in our children, not just an interest in patronage refunds."

The *Saskatchewan Library Association* added another requirement for training:

> "If the teachers of the province are to have the responsibility of administering school libraries, it is only fitting that they should have training for their task. Otherwise, many thousands of dollars spent on books by school districts all over the province are not producing the results they should."

While much consideration was given to the academic requirements of teacher training, some reference was made to the facilities available for training. One consultant referred to the need for

> "constant improvement in the quality of education. . . . To increase academic morale (in Teachers Colleges) inspiring teachers should be employed; and a campus setup, to embrace the student body, with dining halls, hostels, etc. The staff should have time inside college hours, such as University staff enjoy, in order to plan, to discuss and to do research. These needs demand better qualified staff, more staff and, of course, funds."

A school superintendent also recommended "government sponsored, directed and controlled dormitories in the Teacher College cities of Moose Jaw and Saskatoon. Many parents and many trustees of rural areas claim that the high cost of board and room for students attending college make it impossible for students to enroll."

Many community briefs urged the reopening of the "Regina Normal School."

Financial Assistance to Prospective Teachers

Thirty per cent of community briefs dealing with education said there was a need to provide additional scholarship assistance to young people desiring to take a teacher training course. Some thought of encouraging more interest in the profession in this way, others of aiding needy students who could not otherwise take the training.

Admiral suggested "free normal school" if the teacher undertook to teach in a rural school for two years. *Unity* recommended dropping "all normal school fees." *Montmartre* was concerned with needy pupils and recommended an advance of all costs, including board, "in cases where pupils can't afford it, repayable in two or three years without interest." One suggestion at the *Rosthern* forum was that "loans be cancelled upon completion of a stated term of service." Another form of assistance was envisaged by Unity, which suggested making normal school courses available to study supervisors at several points throughout the province.

* * *

Underlying all the proposals to increase the supply of qualified teachers was the feeling expressed by *Loreburn* that "To attract sufficient of our fine bright boys and girls to the teaching profession demands the attention of every intelligent adult in the province." One superintendent stated that essential to an adequate supply of teachers is a change in public attitude:

> "There will have to be a popular reorientation of thinking before young people will consider training for teaching, and before teachers will feel a sense of sufficient importance to want to make teaching their life work. If the professed valuation of education is genuine, it would help if more writers, the press, and the radio could be urged to point up the positive side of education and the equal social status of those involved in educational work."

Retention of Students

The problem of low school retention was raised primarily in briefs from professional and provincial organizations. The *College of Education*, which presented figures on the extent of drop-outs, made the following recommendations to increase retention of students: (1) improvement in the standards of instruction for rural children, (2) increasing the availability of high school facilities, and (3) diversification of the curriculum to develop the potentialities of all girls and boys.

The *College of Education* made two recommendations for the improvement of standards of instruction: "(1) Take steps to increase the amount of training received initially by teachers to at least two years, and, to as great an extent as possible, to four years; (2) Encourage the present trend to centralization of all education in the villages or towns of the province, and, where necessary, develop centralized, graded schools in rural locations."

In connection with the availability of school facilities, the *College of Education* stated, "it has been shown that children tend to terminate their formal education at the level of the highest grade in which instruction is given in their own local school," and recommended "either school buses to transport rural youth daily, or dormitories in which to house and supervise the study activities of high school pupils, (which) have been found to increase the rate of attendance of rural pupils in high school considerably."

"The most serious problem in providing for the education of rural youth," and which must be dealt with in regard to the problem of drop-outs, according to the *College of Education*, "is that of the curriculum." This curriculum, "to meet the needs of all shades of interest and ability in girls and boys in the high school, must offer at least the following: (1) A complete core program in literature and language, social studies, health and physical education, for all pupils; (2) Instruction in all of the academic electives in mathematics, science, and foreign or ancient languages required for university matriculation; (3) A good three-year program in commercial and business electives; (4) A good three-year program in domestic science and shop mechanics electives; (5) A good three-year program in agriculture."

The *College of Education* summed up by saying:

> "It is interesting to note, and should be carefully noted, that the above mentioned factors — the standards of instruction, the availability of high school facilities, and the curriculum — influence more forcefully the practice of children leaving school than do such factors as the need for the child's labour on the farm or disinterest on the part of parents in sending their children to school. Adequate support for these findings has been found in rural areas, particularly in Alberta, where school centralization through dormitories or school buses has been effected."

The University's *College of Education*, noting that there was a higher drop-out of students from the smaller high schools than from larger high schools, concluded that "attention should be given to the school program offered in village and town high schools." The College stated that the high school program "almost without exception centers around the course leading to senior matriculation." Then, referring to a survey "concerning 405 pupils who were enrolled in Grade IX in the fall of 1946 or 1947 in 21 Saskatchewan town or village schools, each containing four high school rooms or less," the College reported the percentages of these students completing the subsequent grades and the percentages entering various occupations as follows:

Completion of high school grades:

6.9 per cent failed to complete Grade IX.
15.1 per cent completed Grade IX only.
15.6 per cent completed Grade X only.
20.5 per cent completed Grade XI only.
41.2 per cent completed Grade XII only.

Subsequent occupation, activity and residence:

6.4 per cent continued to university.
5.4 per cent teaching.
29.4 per cent working in business or industry.
12.4 per cent of girls nursing.
21.4 per cent of boys farming.
23.4 per cent of girls married.
26.2 per cent still living in home community.

This study indicates, according to the *College of Education*, that:

> "1) The school program in town and village schools in Saskatchewan should provide for the needs of students who will enter a variety of occupational fields shortly after leaving school.

> 2) A majority of students enrolling in town or village high schools in Saskatchewan will eventually leave their home community.
>
> 3) About one girl in every four or five who enrolls in a town or village high school in Saskatchewan could directly apply a course of homemaking within six years of enrolment in Grade IX.
>
> 4) About one boy in every four or five who enrolls in a town or village school in Saskatchewan could directly apply a course in agriculture within six years of enrolment in Grade IX.
>
> 5) Less than one student in five who enrolls in a town or village school in Saskatchewan makes direct use (for entrance requirement) of the matriculation course, yet this course holds the most prominent place in the program offered by such schools. . . .
>
> All of the above seems to indicate, that a variety of courses should be offered to the students who enroll in town and village schools. It is difficult, if not impossible, for a variety of courses to be offered in a high school of four rooms or less. . . . It is the belief of the faculty of the College of Education that the movement towards the enlarging of the community served by a town high school should be encouraged. Included in the programs offered in these composite schools will be the following courses: matriculation, agriculture, home economics, commercial, technical, general, physical education, and fine arts."

Curriculum and Standards of Education

Great interest was expressed in curriculum and higher standards of education. Recommendations on curriculum reflected to some extent the special interests of the groups making the recommendations. In the communities, rural people, although favouring a broad curriculum, expressed the desire for more emphasis on the basic subjects—the three R's. Different groups stressed the need for vocational training in agriculture and home economics, training in liberal arts and the sciences, religious education, vocational guidance, professional education, and extra-curricular activities.

Vocational Training

Vocational training in agriculture and home economics was discussed by many groups, but differences of opinion existed on whether vocational training should be offered as part of the high school curriculum or in vocational schools after completion of high school. The *School of Agriculture, University of Saskatchewan,* suggested:

> "The ideal situation would be one in which students completed the general training in high school first, and then proceeded to a vocational school to secure the required training in agriculture. Unfortunately, experience has shown that this is not what is taking place and the ideal situation does not exist. Many boys who plan to stay on the farm do not complete high school. Many who do complete it do not proceed to a vocational school. These boys, then, do not receive the benefit of a training course to fit them for their chosen occupation in life."

The *Roman Catholic Hierarchy* supported a proposal for building twenty agricultural schools throughout the province and felt "the expenditures would be justified by the resultant wide diffusion of knowledge concerning farm life." It recognized that "not all would be able to attend these colleges; but the whole farming community would benefit immeasurably. . . . While the science of agriculture would be a prominent feature of the curriculum in such schools, their chief concern should be to promote the art of rural living. They would be the centers of rural culture, a culture in which liberal and vocational arts would harmonize."

The Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program is one medium through which vocational training in agriculture and rural life is now conducted. The limitations of this program were described by the *Regional Director of the Canadian Vocational Training Program:*

> "The Youth Training Program has been restricted due to the limited funds available. Costs of training have risen in recent years but there has been no increase in the appropriation to offset this increased cost. Consequently, it is now impossible to carry out a full training program for men and women and the number of centers at which training can be provided has decreased. To carry on an adequate program along these lines for farm boys and girls a considerable increase in the appropriation is required."

Considering other types of vocational training, the *Supervisor of Trade Schools* for the province commented on the present practice of farm boys' taking correspondence courses from private trade schools located outside the province.

> "Trade schools such as these, if they are to be of much value to the student, must be practical and there are many instances on record where farm boys, after enrolling for these courses, become discouraged and give them up. I believe the solution to this situation would be to provide facilities in our own province which would enable rural young men to obtain this training. If, under the assistance to vocational schools agreement between the province and dominion, funds can be obtained to set up an institute of technology similar to that now in operation in Manitoba and also in Alberta, it would be possible to provide this training to young farmers more efficiently and at much lower cost than what is now being provided by private trade schools."

One consultant submitted that greater attention should be "devoted to the question of agricultural education at the high school level." Various committees have studied this proposal from time to time, and experimental programs have been attempted. But there has been strong feeling in many quarters that the high school is not the place to attempt vocational training of this kind, since the high school is designed to provide a general course of training and basic foundations rather than vocational training. After having completed his high school training, these groups felt, the student should proceed to an institution designed specifically for the purpose of providing the training in the vocation of his choice. In this way, it was reasoned, the most effective job can be done by an institution organized particularly for that purpose.

Arts and Sciences

Many groups preferred to see the teaching of arts and sciences in the high schools strengthened rather than vocational education substituted. The *College of Pharmacy* of the University stressed the role of the high school as a preparation for university:

> "There has been a trend in recent years to make high schools more attractive so that students will complete the course for matriculation. This has meant inclusion of courses which, while they may be more interesting to the average student, are not considered as suitable preparation for university work. There is naturally a reluctance on the part of students to take required classes unless someone has persuaded them to seriously consider preparing for university training."

A number of departments of the *College of Arts and Science* at the University commented on the poor preparation that many students receive for university instruction. This was considered one of the most serious problems of the College of Arts and Science.

Professional people expressed the desire for more attention to cultural subjects—music and art—in the curriculum. One consultant stated:

> "The 'cultural' subjects of music and art in the schools are badly provided for. Art and music supervisors should be the rule for all larger centers and units. The teaching of these subjects at summer courses should be extended and enriched by special guest teachers; and these people should be first class educationalists — not projectors of 'novelty' methods."

The *Saskatchewan Library Association* suggested that school libraries could be used more effectively in cultural training. These "could guide the superior and advanced pupils, in any grade, to a variety of cultural interests or hobbies while he or she is marking time waiting for the rest of the class to catch up."

The *Regina Astronomical Association*, in recommending greater attention to training in mathematics, submitted that students "are not required to train their minds in high school. . . . If the present trend of learning less and less in high school should continue, the standard of living in Saskatchewan can be expected to fall; but if the students in high school are stimulated to find the better things of life, they will spontaneously improve their own lot."

Religious Education

The *Roman Catholic Hierarchy* and the *Saskatchewan Diocese of the Church of England* urged more religious education in the public school system. The *Roman Catholic Hierarchy* stated:

> "The emphasis is on preparing a student for earning a living while scant regard is paid to his obligation of worshipping God. The concession which has been made by law for religious instruction in the school is not sufficient. Religious instruction should become an integral part of the school curriculum. Text books, especially in the field of social studies, should stress the role of God in the creation of the world and man's subsequent dependence on his creator."

The *Saskatchewan Diocese of the Church of England*, supporting the plea for more teaching of religion in the schools, submitted:

> "It is our conviction that the teaching of religious education as a subject in the school would give the student an insight into the principles which underlie his cultural life. Following the pattern of other subjects in the school, it would be necessary to prepare the embryonic teacher to teach the subject without denominational bias, so that a scale of values would emerge as a result of the teaching to prepare the student to recognize the spiritual quality and principals that form the basis of the Christian way of life. There is a central core of Christian teaching which is common to all the churches. Attention should be centered upon this to avoid the plague of denominational differences, jealousies and mistrust. As in the church the ecumenical movement recognizes this central core of Christian truth, so also in education our children could all be taught these truths together, as the foundations upon which our culture and civilization have been built."

Vocational Guidance

Professional educators and professional organizations stated that there is a need for increased vocational guidance for high school students. The need for vocational guidance, it was pointed out, will increase with expansion in the curriculum. The *College of Education* contended that the responsibility of "assisting students to make their choices wisely" should start in the elementary schools "on a unit-wide basis" as a responsibility of the high school.

Two professional groups commented on the need for vocational guidance. The *Council of the College of Dental Surgeons* recommended that "vocational guidance teachers be requested to give dentistry a higher place in their recommendations." The *Chemical Institute of Canada, South Saskatchewan Section*, reported that it has a committee at work "preparing a guidance program to assist teachers in collegiates in their vocational guidance work." This organization also reported that its membership was available to assist in guidance work in the high schools.

Extra-Curricular Activities

Not only were recommendations made on the school curriculum, but a few groups addressed themselves to extra-curricular school activities as well. The *Church of England, Saskatchewan Diocese*, while recognizing the value of extra-curricular activities, referred to the continuing encroachment of the school into the home life of the student and submitted, "It should not be the task of the school to 'fill up' the time of the pupil, but rather to provide opportunities for a varied program of activity to meet the varying needs of pupils."

From the point of view of the burden to the teacher, *Cut Knife* submitted,

> "Teachers with special training in extra-curricular subjects could be hired by the unit board and could travel from school to school spending some time in each one. Skilled persons in the community could give a few hours a week in training students in such things as arts, crafts, and trades."

Professional Education

Considerable concern was expressed by professional and provincial organizations for the low percentage of students who undertake professional training.

Gravelbourg referred to the cost of professional education as a deterrent, and raised the question, "Since primary and secondary education are supported by taxes, why shouldn't university education be supported in the same manner?"

A brief submitted by five staff members of *Notre Dame College* together with the *United Church Minister of Wilcox* claimed that the means of encouraging continuation to professional training lies in decentralizing university facilities. "Much of Saskatchewan's present rural problem has been precipitated . . . by the monopoly of higher education centralized in Saskatoon. . . . The University Act (should) be amended, . . . a university (should be) erected in Regina and, . . . in the larger cities of the province, associated as affiliates of the two universities, there (should) be inaugurated university arts colleges."

The *Saskatchewan Veterinary Association* recommended that training facilities for veterinarians be provided at the University of Saskatchewan to encourage more students to enter veterinary medicine.

The *Saskatchewan Board of Trade* claimed that businessmen could exert more influence:

> "Advisory committees of businessmen set up through the co-operation of teachers, Home and School Associations and Boards of Trade, might have a (great) influence in convincing young people of the importance of continuing their education, particularly if businessmen would take the long-range view in their interviews with prospective employees of college age and calibre."

Centralization of School Facilities

Centralization of school facilities and the establishment of transportation systems to ensure school attendance is the most significant development in rural education. The majority of rural communities favoured centralization as a means of dealing with some of the urgent problems of education. The *Everton* brief summed up the opinion of those who favoured centralization when it recommended that "there should be larger schools in the main centers to which students might be transported by bus. . . . There should be a wider curriculum in these larger centers to meet the varied needs of the children, and there should be greater opportunity for technical training in these local centers." An alternative to outright consolidation of schools arose in discussions at the *Lashburn* community forum. This alternative was "that rural classes be transported by bus on certain days to larger centers for classes requiring facilities not at present available in the rural school."

All were agreed on the wisdom of centralizing high school facilities. *Everton* believed that "all high school students should be assisted . . . to attend high school where it is taught, rather than attempt to take these grades by correspondence course in a rural school." *Rosthern* commented that one of the advantages of consolidated high schools would be "to relieve the rural teachers from all high school supervision" and that, "with the financial help of outlying areas around the consolidated high schools, these could be staffed and equipped to a far greater degree than town schools are at present."

The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* presented information on the effect of centralization of high school facilities which had been gathered through a questionnaire submitted to unit and district boards and individual trustees. Answers to the question, "Would centralization increase high school attendance and standards?" are presented at the bottom of the page.

In discussion of centralization of high school facilities, the question of dormitories was considered. The *Lashburn Women's Co-operative Guild* pointed out that "children of rural areas finishing Grade VIII are only 13 years old on an average. We believe this is far too young to turn them loose in a town to board at places that assume no responsibility for their study or leisure time." This group stated that six children from the Lashburn area were going to high schools elsewhere because suitable living accommodations were not available in Lashburn, and submitted that "this causes an extra financial burden on the rural parent" which "hardly seems fair." The solution, according to the Lashburn Guild, "is to provide a supervised dormitory at those points where there are at least 20 rural students attending high school, or transportation to be provided to take these students to town each day."

Although considerable concern was expressed for the problems associated with transportation, the majority of those opposed to transportation by school bus preferred it to the use of dormitories.

	Unit Boards	District Boards	Individual Trustees	Total
Yes	32	34	24	90
No	3	4	10	17
Undecided	1	2	—	3
No reply	2	2	4	8
Total	38	42	38	118

Location of Centralized Facilities

Although the majority opinion favoured centralization, those in favour were not agreed as to the location of centralized schools. At the *Davidson* community forum, "three groups expressed the view that central schools should be located in the country rather than have the pupils conveyed long distances to urban schools." The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association,* however, believed "the central schools should be located in urban centers where other conveniences and services are established. However, the exact locations must be finally determined by considering each case individually."

The main reservation about centralization, which appeared in discussions at community hearings, was with regard to transportation. In the southwest and northern parts of the province, frequent mention was made of the difficulties of distance and snow-blocked roads. Where people were long distances from town-centered schools, the location of the school was an issue because of the transportation problem.

Planning of Centralization

Planning of centralization of school facilities was considered essential if it is to achieve maximum benefits. The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* noted that a voluntary centralization program "may jeopardize rural life, whereas a carefully planned centralization program with a satisfactory transportation system . . . would foster the retention of farm families in the farm home. . . . Realizing the significance of centralization of schools to our boys and girls and to our rural communities," the Association urged "greater economic and educational support" for it from local and provincial governments.

The *Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation* suggested four points which should be considered in planning centralization.

> "1) Where the urbanization movement is definite and permanent, long-term planning should provide the best of school facilities in centers where they will serve the most people.
>
> 2) Where the urbanization movement has left a considerable number of farmers with children on the farms, there needs to be full co-operation between municipal and unit board authorities in planning and improving roads for conveyance systems.
>
> 3) Where there has been little trend towards town, but where it has been difficult to get qualified teachers to serve because of the lack of social amenities, more experimentation with rural consolidation of schools should be carried out.
>
> 4) The unit system of administration is able to provide the solutions to this problem. The units of Prince Albert, Cupar and Govan have brought several rural schools together to permit the improved facilities of a three- or four-roomed school. We recommend that the remaining unorganized superintendencies be legislated into larger units."

Administration of Education

In the area of the administration of education, communities and organizations made recommendations on the role of the superintendent, the functioning of the unit board, and increased co-operation between school and municipal authorities.

With respect to the role of the superintendent, *Lumsden* sought greater supervisory assistance and recommended "longer and more helpful visits from the superintendents." The *Maple Dale Local Lodge of the Saskatchewan Farmers Union* suggested that "the superintendent should do all in his power to keep the rural school open especially where there are enough children of school age to keep the school open and will be for a number of years."

With respect to the functioning of unit boards, the *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* reported a favourable response from some unit boards, district boards, and individual trustees to the suggestion that an administrator be appointed to carry out policies defined by the unit board. The Association summed up its position and presented the challenge in the realm of administration in this way:

> "The practice of democratic principles in local government is the very basis for our national democracy. As the elected representatives of the ratepayers, the members of the unit board must exercise prime administrative authority. This will consume much time and effort with little remuneration but the job must be done, for if they fail to do so, some other person or persons will do it for them. The other persons may be the Superintendent of Schools and the unit Secretary-Treasurer but, as these are appointees not responsible to the electorate, they must serve only in the very important roles of advisors, and must not be charged with the responsibility of making final decisions. Our future lies in the hope that strong, capable, willing persons are elected to these important authoritative positions on our school boards."

Cabri suggested that administration might be improved by holding schools "for trustees in which they learn about all matters pertaining to the school and its administration."

Rural people were also concerned about achieving closer co-operation between school and municipal authorities. Three per cent of community briefs recommended closer co-ordination between larger unit boards and municipal councils. One superintendent of schools thought that there should be a "close relationship between municipal and education systems, possibly through a county system. The municipal bodies are not always aware of the importance of education even in the general economic system."

Financing of Education

Recommendations of rural communities on the problem of financing education were addressed to meeting the high operating costs and capital expenditures of modern education, to overcoming rural-urban inequalities, and to reducing tax arrears. The following changes in the present system of tax collection were suggested at community hearings:

1) The municipal council should have budgetary control over education taxes. At the same time, it was stated, precautions should be taken to maintain the quality of education and to prevent its suffering at the expense of improving public works.

2) Although the education tax is satisfactory as far as it goes, inequities in the burden of education taxes should be remedied.

3) Heavier taxes should be imposed on luxuries such as tobacco and liquor.

4) Lands not in school districts should be taxed. Apparently, some land in certain units was not included in a school district prior to establishment of the unit and is therefore not included in the unit.

5) The municipality should be more strict in collecting tax arrears.

Responsibility of Senior Governments for Costs of Education

Nearly one-half of community briefs dealing with education asked for increases in provincial grants for education. More than sixty per cent of community briefs urged financial assistance from the Federal Government to the province for education.

The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* submitted two questions to unit and district boards and individual trustees on the responsibility of senior governments for aid to education: (1) Is the financial burden for education equitably distributed? (2) Should the Provincial or Federal Government bear a greater share of the cost of education? In reply to the first question, 87 per cent of the respondents stated that the financial burden for education is not equitably distributed, while 7 per cent were satisfied that present arrangements are equitable. With respect to the second question, 69 per cent favoured greater provincial support, while 18 per cent were opposed to increased provincial aid. Eighty-nine per cent favoured increased federal support, while 8 per cent were opposed to federal aid.

The *Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association* summed up its position on the responsibility for financing education in this way:

> "In a province such as Saskatchewan, with hazardous financial resources, the financing of education should be stabilized in each of three ways: (1) on a local basis, by practising a pay-as-you go policy and creating financial reserves in prosperous years, (2) by additional financial support by the Provincial Government to relieve the local responsibility which may fail in any area, (3) by additional federal aid to education."

A school superintendent made a case for additional assistance from senior governments as follows:

> "If it is assumed that real taxes are approaching a practical limit, then moneys will need to be found elsewhere. This unit can support its operational costs under the present grant structure; it cannot assume the urgently required capital expenditures. If we really believe in equalization of educational opportunity, the Province and the Federal Government will need to assume additional financial responsibility, particularly to assist capital expenditures and centralization."

Federal Aid for Education

The majority of recommendations on the financing of education were concerned with the necessity of federal aid to education. *Rosthern* believed the Federal Government "should recognize some financial responsibility in the construction and maintenance of schools." *Kinistino* felt "a greater part of the national income should be earmarked for education" and recommended that "family allowances should be continued as long as the child is attending school." *Admiral* suggested an outright "system of grants for rural schools" by the Federal Government. *Alameda* pointed to the need for protecting "the provincial right to decide on its educational policy as guaranteed by the British North America Act" but nevertheless believed there should be increased federal grants "with a view to more nearly equalizing educational costs per capita . . . while providing equal opportunity to all Canadian boys and girls."

The *Saskatchewan Association of Rural Municipalities* urged that "every effort should be made to try and obtain federal assistance for education to relieve the weight of property taxes."

The *Saskatchewan Farmers Union* suggested that the Federal Government should take responsibility for financing the costs of a basic curriculum in all provinces across Canada, with the provinces then adding to this basic curriculum according to their own needs and resources.

One individual who had acted as a school trustee for 39 years believed that "federal aid for roads and schools is a long felt want. Our Saskatchewan provincial government is doing a good job in both these departments as far as it can do so, but it still is not enough to keep up with the present progress of the times which demands more money for these social activities."

The majority opinion expressed at community hearings indicated that farm people believe more federal assistance should be provided for education.

Participation in Educational Affairs

Public apathy to modern education and the administration of education was deplored by numerous communities, organizations, and individuals. The larger unit was blamed by some for the loss of public interest in education. Thus, the *Saskatchewan Association of Rural Municipalities* felt that "there is a feeling the larger school units show a loss of contact with the taxpayer and consequently do not reflect public opinion in their financing." The system of election of unit board members was also held responsible for the apathy of some ratepayers. This situation could be remedied, one individual suggested, if "the electors in each sub-unit should be entitled to . . . elect their own sub-unit trustee who would be answerable directly to them at the annual meeting."

Rural people, recognizing the problem of apathy as a local and personal issue, were quick to admit that theirs was the responsibility for improving the situation. Three-quarters of community briefs called for an increase in parent-teacher co-operation, and many briefs saw the organization of a Home and School Association as a solution. Strong support for Home and School Associations was also expressed at community hearings, for they allow parents and teachers to become better acquainted, permit discussion of points of difference, and develop better understanding of the objectives and methods of present day education. It was generally felt that Home and School Associations could be the main medium for increasing parents' participation in school affairs.

The *Roman Catholic Hierarchy*, while recognizing the role of Home and School Associations, stated: "The problem, however, lies much deeper. The real solution lies in an understanding of the proper function of education and in the realization that parents have an inalienable right to educate their children."

One consultant expressed the opinion that Home and School Associations could be made more effective through "the formation of larger area associations around a trade center" and claimed that "examples of this are already working well," citing the Moose Jaw Rural Home and School Association, which meets monthly in the Moose Jaw Teachers College.

In addition to the use of Home and School Associations as a means to increase parent interest and participation, other suggestions were offered. The *Lashburn Women's Co-operative Guild* recommended "making greater use of (school) facilities by the whole community for adult education and recreation. This increase in rural adult education may increase interest in education." *Cabri* believed there could be "more activity for pupils in the school" and this would enlist "public interest and sympathy." A school superintendent believed that all "available persons or agencies should be utilized in the community to clarify popular thinking, through the provision of information respecting educational philosophy and practice."

Responsibilities in the Field of Education

An analysis was made of the content of a sample of 63 community briefs dealing with the topic of education. The frequency with which various types of responsibilities were defined for parents, teachers, and for local, provincial, and federal levels is presented in Table 106.

TABLE 106. RESPONSIBILITIES DEFINED IN COMMUNITY BRIEFS FOR PARENTS, TEACHERS, AND FOR LOCAL, PROVINCIAL, AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENTS

(Number of briefs analysed — 63)

Responsibility	Number of Briefs	Per Cent of Briefs
Parents' Responsibilities:		
Increase parent-teacher co-operation	46	73
Increase respect for teaching profession	12	19
Pay taxes	10	16
Accept responsibility for school administration	9	14
Encourage scholarship and continuance of education	8	13
Organize and support Home and School Clubs	8	13
Increase understanding of need for increased costs	6	10
Teachers' Responsibilities:		
Increase awareness of pupils of teaching as a vocation	5	8
Develop pride in profession of teaching	4	6
Accept responsibilities as a citizen	2	3
Seek improvement through further training	2	3

TABLE 106. RESPONSIBILITIES DEFINED IN COMMUNITY BRIEFS FOR PARENTS, TEACHERS, AND FOR LOCAL, PROVINCIAL, AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENTS—*Continued*

Responsibility	Number of Briefs	Per Cent of Briefs
Local Organizations and Local Government Responsibilities:		
Improve teacher living accommodation	29	46
Provide and maintain suitable school facilities	29	46
Provide adequate salary schedule	28	44
Develop consolidated schools	27	43
Provide transportation	18	29
Organize Home and School Clubs	8	13
Improve roads and bus routes	8	13
Provide dormitory or boarding facilities	6	10
Provide scholarships	6	10
Increase co-operation between teachers and school board	5	8
Encourage young people to enter teaching profession	5	8
Close rural schools with low enrolment	4	6
Develop composite high school facilities	4	6
Provide an isolation bonus	4	6
Hire only qualified teachers	3	5
Provide specialized teachers	3	5
Increase co-operation between council and unit board	2	3
Provincial Organizations and Provincial Government Responsibilities:		
Increase school grants	29	46
Provide entrance scholarship to Teachers Colleges	19	30
Raise teachers' qualifications	18	29
Increase salaries comparable with other professions	10	16
Revise school financing system	8	13
Provide careful screening of teacher candidates	7	11
Improve courses of study	7	11

TABLE 106. RESPONSIBILITIES DEFINED IN COMMUNITY BRIEFS FOR PARENTS, TEACHERS, AND FOR LOCAL, PROVINCIAL, AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENTS—*Concluded*

Responsibility	Number of Briefs	Per Cent of Briefs
Provincial Organizations and Provincial Government Responsibilities:—Continued.		
Arrange publicity program to attract teachers	6	10
Aid needy students	6	10
Provide vocational guidance to students	5	8
Increase grants for road construction	4	6
Lower teachers' qualifications	4	6
Improve quality of supervisor program	4	6
Equalize salaries between units	4	6
Provide for vocational training	3	5
Increase number of larger units	3	5
Provide more attractive superannuation	3	5
Federal Government Responsibilities:		
Provide financial assistance to province	39	62
Standardize courses throughout Canada	18	29
Standardize training throughout Canada	7	11
Provide scholarships	3	5
Revise taxation system for purpose of financing education	3	5
Revise income tax as it affects students	2	3
Summary:		
Briefs defining responsibilities for parents	48	76
Briefs defining responsibilities for teachers	14	22
Briefs defining local responsibilities	60	95
Briefs defining provincial responsibilities	56	89
Briefs defining federal responsibilities	50	79

Summary

Public recommendations to meet the shortage of qualified teachers included increased centralization of schools to decrease the number of teachers needed, increased basic salaries and fringe benefits to attract and retain teachers, improved living accommodations for rural teachers, improved training of teachers in order to assure well-qualified teachers, and financial aid to prospective teachers. The recommendation to which greatest importance was attached was that for increased salaries.

To meet the problem of retaining students in school, it was recommended that standards of instruction for rural children be raised, high school facilities be made available by providing transportation or dormitories, and the curriculum be diversified to develop the potentialities of all students.

Rural people generally favoured a broadened school curriculum, although emphasis was requested on the basic subjects as well. Increased vocational training was recommended, but opinion was divided on whether vocational training should be offered as part of the high school curriculum or in vocational schools after completion of high school. Some groups expressed the desire for improved teaching of the arts and sciences as a preparation for university. Church groups urged more religious education in the public school system. In keeping with recommendations for a broadened curriculum, attention to vocational guidance was urged. Extra-curricular activities under the supervision of skilled persons were also favoured.

The low percentage of students who continue for professional training was a matter of concern. Recommendations for facilitating professional education included financial aid to students, more varied training facilities, and decentralization of training facilities.

The majority of submissions dealing with centralization favoured centralization and urged that it be extended. Opinion was unanimous on the need for centralization of high school facilities. Educators and educational agencies supported centralization emphatically. On the location of centralized facilities, however, some rural communities favoured central rural locations and others pressed for town attendance areas. Planning of adequate attendance areas and centralization was considered essential to realize maximum benefits for education.

Recommendations on administration of education concerned the role of the superintendent, the functioning of the unit board, and increased co-ordination between school and municipal authorities.

Methods of alleviating the stress of financing education were recommended by most communities and a few provincial organizations. While the greatest single plea was for increased federal assistance, recommendations were also proposed which would introduce greater provincial assistance and still others which would revise tax levying and collection procedures. With respect to local taxes for education, a few communities recommended that municipalities have budgetary control over taxation for education, while others called for a more equitable levy as between property owners and salaried people.

Recommendations to overcome public apathy and stimulate participation in school affairs included the establishment of Home and School Associations and the use of the school for adult education and community projects. Revision of the procedure for electing school trustees was also recommended.

CHAPTER XIII

Conclusions

Historically, the industrial revolution and the subsequent rise of political democracy set the stage for the eventual establishment of free public education in North America. The development of industry required literate workers and vastly greater numbers of educated persons to perform new functions in society. The concept of political democracy demanded citizens who could exercise their responsibilities intelligently. Increased production of wealth provided the financial means and democracy the political means to make free public education a reality.

As with all far-reaching social change, free education was the center of bitter controversy before its inevitable victory. That controversy was resolved on the Canadian prairies a short 75 years ago. Since that time tremendous advances have been made in all phases of public education until today it has become one of the most important public services in democratic society.

Rural education must be considered in its integral relationship with the total rural social system. Changes in the farm economy and associated social adjustments have vital implications for the provision of education in rural areas. In Saskatchewan, these changes have accelerated greatly in the last 20 years. They have created new problems in the organization, administration, and financing of education and, as well, have created new needs to be met by education. These problems and needs have been the primary focus of this report.

Rural education must also be considered in its relationship to the national and world community. The great strides in technical and scientific knowledge, the ever-diminishing effects of spatial separation of peoples—these and other phenomena of a changing world have important implications for education. The function of education in preparing tomorrow's citizens for the world they will live in has also been a major concern of this report.

The Commission's conclusions with respect to rural education as they are presented in this chapter follow closely the organization of the body of the report. They include, in summary form, much of the important data found in this report.

Public Opinion

1. *Concern for education was voiced by nearly all communities and organizations making submissions to the Commission.* Rural communities emphasized problems which prevent the realization of adequate and equal educational opportunities for all. Provincial organizations and agencies, including professional groups, referred more specifically to shortages of trained technicians and professional personnel.

2. *The major problem as seen by the rural communities was the shortage of qualified teachers, caused, in their opinion, by inadequate salaries.* They also gave recognition, however, to the effects of such factors as living and working conditions, rural isolation, and the attitude of the public generally towards the teaching profession. Concern was expressed as well for inadequacies of curriculum, with frequent reference to the need for more emphasis on basic academic subjects. With respect to facilities, the lack of libraries and special equipment received attention. These inadequacies, coupled with the necessity of using correspondence courses, were seen as being largely responsible for the low retention of students in high school.

3. *The majority of rural people supported centralization and the larger unit of administration.* However, they also defined problems with respect to the low level of ratepayer participation, equitable financing of education, and the lack of adequate co-ordination between rural and urban, and school and municipal administrations.

Environmental Change and Rural Education

Historical Trends

4. *School districts were initially mapped and organized to serve a rural population settled on quarter and half section farms.* Legislation permitted schools to be closed when enrolment fell below a certain minimum. Adjustments prior to 1912 in rural conditions were responsible for legislation allowing formation of consolidated districts. By 1921 numerous schools had been closed.

Adjustments in the Rural Environment

5. *The changing organization of agricultural production has affected rural education.* Variable yields and prices of farm products, coupled with advances in technology, have led to three main changes in agriculture—increased farm size, increased mechanization, and changes in farm capital. These three changes have affected farm income and density of population which, in turn, have had profound effects on the organization of education. By creating the need for new levels of technical skills and skills in business management among the farm population, agricultural changes have also altered the educational needs of rural people.

6. *Although average per farm income has increased, it has not increased as much as in other sectors of the economy, it has remained unstable, and many farmers continue to suffer from low incomes.* Fluctuations in farm income and great disparity in the distribution of income among individual farmers make payment of school taxes burdensome for many farmers and tax collection difficult for municipal authorities.

7. *Changes in agricultural production have contributed to a decline in the rural population as a proportion of total population.* The decline in the farm population has been most extreme—a decline of 30 per cent from 1936 to 1951. Density of rural population is greater in the park region than in the prairie region. These population changes have necessitated changes in the organization of rural education. As mechanization proceeds and farm size increases further, rural

population can be expected to continue to decline.

8. *The migration of farm youth to urban centers both within and outside Saskatchewan accounts for a high proportion of rural population loss.* This movement poses a major challenge for the educational system—to prepare farm youth for urban occupations. The fact that this large-scale migration to urban locations both within and outside the province occurs after youth have gained their basic education underlines the justification for broad provincial and federal financing of education.

9. *As an aspect of total population, student population has declined from a high of 230,735 in 1931-32 to 171,402 in 1953-54.* Rural enrolment has declined consistently from a high of 60 per cent of total enrolment in 1941 to 36 per cent in 1954, while village and town enrolments have both increased approximately 6 per cent and city enrolments have doubled. School enrolments will probably increase in the future because of the present large number of children of preschool age. It has been estimated that there will be about 211,000 students enrolled in schools in the province in 1962. If additional students enroll in the rural and urban schools in similar proportions, and if retention of high school students is markedly improved, urban facilities will require marked expansion.

10. *The mechanization and commercialization of agriculture, in addition to reducing the farm labour force, have added new needs to be met by education: more adequate education for those who intend to farm and for those who must seek non-farm employment.* In addition, generally rising farm incomes and increased rural-urban interdependence have increased the demand for higher standards of education—for improved facilities, qualified teachers, and enriched curriculum. Changes in the environment have also emphasized the contribution education can make in preparing farm people to use increased leisure time wisely and to understand their role in a changing community.

Trends in School Facilities

11. *Of more than 5,000 school districts in the province, 1,600 were not operating in 1953-54 and approximately 500 others operated with fewer than 10 pupils.* More than half of the closed districts ceased operating after 1946. Despite the closing of schools, the number of high school and continuation rooms has increased from 435 in 1926-27 to 975 in 1953-54. The increase has been practically all in high school rooms with the result that fewer districts now provide more high school facilities.

Trends in Supply of Teachers

12. *Although the percentage of unqualified teachers (teachers with less than second class certificates) has been declining since 1949, 765 teachers (8.7 per cent of the teaching force) were not qualified in 1954.* The shortage of qualified teachers affects retention of students in school and standards of education. A direct effect of the shortage has been increased demand for the services of the Government Correspondence School. The number of elementary students enrolled in correspondence courses without local supervision has been stable at approximately 300 through the past five years, but the number enrolled in correspondence courses under local supervision has increased sharply from a few hundred to more

than 8,000 as the number of study supervisors increased. The number of high school students using correspondence courses has declined from 9,000 (27 per cent of all high school students) in 1931 to 6,600 (20 per cent of all high school students) in 1953-54. Although there has been an overall decline, there has been a marked increase in the use of correspondence courses without local supervision—a consequence of the teacher shortage and the lack of sufficient high school facilities of high standard.

Trends in the Regrouping of School Facilities

13. *The regrouping of schools into larger attendance areas has been under way for several decades, although the pace has accelerated since 1946.* The proportion of school districts classified as non-operating increased from 5 per cent in 1921 to 31 per cent in 1954. Most of these (85 per cent) were conveying students to central schools in 1954. In 1921, 88 districts were conveying students; by 1954 the number had grown to 1,451.

Development of Larger Units

14. *Larger units of school administration were formed to provide adequate administrative and taxing units and to minimize inequalities in financing education among school districts.* As farm population declined, many school districts were unable to meet the needs of modern education. In many instances, the number of students per district was too small to keep the school open, and the cost of financing education was excessively high. Larger units provided solutions to some of the problems. In recognition of the interdependence of rural and urban life, larger units include all village school districts and a majority of town districts within their boundaries.

Trends in School Finance

15. *Education as a public expenditure has nearly tripled from 1921 to 1954.* Per capita expenditures for education have risen as population has declined, but expenditures for education have remained a relatively stable proportion of personal income.

16. *Since 1942, education as a proportion of expenditures for all government services has declined.* Similarly, a slightly lower priority has been assigned to education than to public works in the allocation of local resources.

17. *Within education, increasing proportions of expenditures are being allocated to non-operating or capital expenditures.* Although all components of revenues for education have increased in amount over the years, local taxes and grants have declined in importance and increasing use is being made of loans and debentures. These trends reflect the capital costs of a system of rural education in transition to centralized school facilities.

Regrouping of School Facilities

18. *In the main, the regrouping of school facilities is initially an emergency process to meet the problems of facilitating attendance in areas of low population density.* Approximately 85 per cent of the closed districts convey students to central locations, the majority on

organized conveyance routes. Ratepayers at first were quite skeptical of the school bus, but after some experience conveyance has been generally accepted, and more districts have wanted service than were originally included. Initial satisfaction with centralization in some areas has, in fact, led to public pressure for greater centralization than educational authorities were prepared to meet.

19. *The shortage of qualified teachers, particularly in the postwar years, has led to the closing of many rural schools.* On the average, if the existing standards of education are maintained, one teacher can be saved for every two rural schools closed. Moreover, working and living conditions associated with centralized schools are more favourable for attracting and retaining qualified teachers.

20. *By June, 1953, 25 per cent of rural school districts were closed and conveying pupils to central locations.* Regrouping of school facilities has been more extensive in the prairie region of the province with its large straight grain farms than in the park region, where settlement is more dense on smaller diversified farms.

21. *The need for transportation to centralized schools has created a problem and acted as a deterrent to centralization.* The high capital costs of buses and bombardiers and poor rural roads have made the provision of transportation difficult.

22. *The distance that young children can properly travel has influenced the level of centralization.* With a single transportation system for elementary and high school students, centralized schools have tended to be located in relatively small centers. Larger attendance areas should be designed to ensure adequate enrolments in elementary and secondary schools. Two levels of centralization—one for elementary students in the village-centered neighbourhood and one for high school students in a larger area of association—might both respect the distances young children can travel and provide satisfactory enrolments for high school classes.

23. *Although the initial capital investment in conveyance equipment is high, the costs of centralizing must be weighed against the costs of retaining the one-room rural school.* It has been shown that, with respect to operating costs, centralization offers net financial benefits—provided a 2:1 ratio can be maintained between number of schools closed and number of extra rooms required at the central location. Economies will increase as more rural schools are closed relative to new facilities required.

24. *The process of centralization is associated with high capital costs which have to date been financed largely by direct taxation.* In 1954, however, debenture financing became more prevalent in larger units. Future centralization will be successful to the extent that adequate and certain long-term financing will be available.

25. *Ratepayer attitudes affect the demand for centralization and the support given to the development of centralized schools and conveyance systems.* Where district boards have ceased functioning, ratepayers may have no means for participating in the affairs of the central school. Central boards are permissible to allow closed districts to co-operate in the administration of central schools. Only one-fifth of the larger attendance areas, however, have established such boards.

26. *Although centralization initially was undertaken as an adjustment to a sparse rural population and the shortage of qualified teachers, there can be no doubt that after some experience it has come to be more favourably regarded as an important means of providing education of a higher standard.* In the future the educational advantages will tend to exert even greater influence.

27. *To avoid costly mistakes in the relocation of schools and to assure effective education for rural youth in the future, long-term planning is essential.* Such planning requires accurate information as to population movement, stability of the tax base, farm size adjustments, and other economic and social trends within each unit. Once the outlines of the long-term pattern are seen, long-term budgets can be planned more realistically. There is urgent need for technical planning assistance which would be available on request to unit boards; to date such assistance has not been provided either by the Department of Education or the University of Saskatchewan.

Larger Units of Administration

Organization of Larger School Units

28. *Larger units of school administration were organized to increase the tax base of the small school district, to minimize inequities in tax burden among school districts in a wide area, and to provide uniform administration in a wide area.* Larger units have been established in 56 of the 60 superintendencies of the province, each including approximately 80 school districts. In general, larger units have accomplished the objectives they were designed to meet, but improvements in organization, administration, and financing could be devised.

29. *Differences among larger units have created inequities in their relative adaptability to the needs of modern education.* The boundaries of larger units were mapped to conform with school district boundaries. Adequacy of communication, natural geographic barriers, and a reasonable administrative area were also considered in their delineation. A change in the prospective number of units, the inclusion of towns after initially mapping and establishing some of the units, failure to take account of the boundary lines of service areas other than school districts, and changes in the rural environment have resulted in wide variations in size among units and in the number of classrooms and number of students included.

Financing in Larger Units

30. *To finance current educational costs in the larger units, the units levy a uniform tax over the entire area, except for adjustments between rural and urban areas.* Larger units may increase the tax levy for purposes of accumulating a reserve fund, and also for capital expenditures. Unit boards may also requisition special levies on behalf of individual districts. The municipal councils are obliged to collect the taxes fixed by the unit authorities and make payment to unit boards. Municipal councils may dispute the levy only in a few special cases, in which event the Saskatchewan Assessment Commission makes a final decision.

31. *The formation of larger units in itself provided a greater degree of equalization among school districts within each unit than had existed previously; nevertheless, equalization grants from the Provincial Government were required to minimize the differences among units.* Equalization grants amount to 50 per cent of total grants to units. Equalization grants to units differ from equalization grants to school districts, mainly in that they are based in part on the costs of operating elementary and high school rooms. District equalization grants are based solely on relative assessments.

Administration of Larger Units

32. *Each larger unit is administered by a board of trustees which is elected by representatives of local districts in each sub-unit.* Unit board trustees are reimbursed for a maximum of twenty-four meetings per year and may also receive compensation for unit business for a number of days equal to the number of operating districts in the sub-unit. The unit board is responsible for administration and supervision of the educational program in the unit; it is assisted by a secretary-treasurer and by a superintendent appointed by the Department of Education. Unit boards are dependent on rural municipalities for tax collection and for co-operation in the provision of adequate roads for bus routes. They are dependent too on local school boards for stewardship of local property, to provide the requirements of daily operation, and to provide for participation of the local ratepayers. There is considerable variation between and within units as to the adequacy of the administrative relationships.

33. *Although the duties and responsibilities of the unit board and district board are well defined, many district boards are apathetic towards local administration.* The major reason for loss of interest is loss of local control of educational matters. Ratepayers also criticize increases in taxation attributed to the larger unit administration. Some ratepayers oppose the present method of unit trustee election, while others criticize larger units as being responsible for closing of schools and centralization. Some district boards place the blame for board inactivity on the lack of local ratepayer interest.

34. *Local district boards are important in the administrative chain of the larger unit.* To maintain their effectiveness requires the combined initiative of the unit board and the ratepayers. The greater responsibility devolves on unit boards to define the role of district boards and to develop channels of communication. The effectiveness of ratepayers in mobilizing their district boards depends on the degree of active support which they give to the larger unit system. It is significant that, although elections have been held, not a single unit has been disestablished at the end of its five-year trial period.

35. *A democratic and strong larger school unit requires maximum understanding and participation by citizens.* Since the local board is the intermediary between ratepayers and the unit board, district boards that lack interest in school affairs or that have become completely inoperative threaten the democratic functioning of the unit. The election at large of a unit trustee within each sub-unit would make unit administration more directly responsible to the ratepayers than does the present method of election. This change in election procedure would also provide equal

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opportunity to residents of all districts regardless of the status of individual boards. The establishment of central boards in every larger attendance area would facilitate ratepayer participation in the affairs of the central school. In addition, Home and School Associations offer opportunities for increasing the interest and participation of citizens in both unit and local school affairs.

36. *The relationship between unit board and superintendent is generally satisfactory.* The superintendent, appointed by the Department of Education, is responsible for the supervision of teachers, for advising the unit board on educational matters, and for conferring with the board on matters pertaining to the unit office. Within this definition of functions there is considerable variability in the activities of superintendents, depending on the age of the unit, the strength of the unit board, the activity of district boards, and the personality of the superintendent. The majority of unit superintendents are closely associated with administration. Some ratepayers are concerned, however, that the superintendents have assumed too much authority over local educational affairs and that decisions of unit boards do not always reflect the wishes of the ratepayers. A maximum of communication and participation by the ratepayers could correct this difficulty.

Relationship of Larger School Units to Other Local Agencies

37. *Although education is related to activities of municipal, health, agriculture, and other local agencies, no formal administrative links exist between larger units and these agencies.* Overlapping boundaries and the lack of channels for administrative co-ordination stand in the way of effective liaison between local agencies. Lack of co-ordination between larger units and rural municipalities is a serious deficiency in financing education and in development of school bus routes.

38. *To achieve integration of school and municipal services will require extensive changes in the organization of local government.* Most urgently required is the establishment of coterminous boundaries on a larger area basis for the administration of school and municipal services. In its report on Rural Roads and Local Government, this Commission concluded that a modified county or a full county presents the most desirable alternative to the present system of rural municipalities. In either case, coterminous boundaries for local administration of school and municipal affairs would be based on the area served by larger trading centers. Present boundaries of some larger school units would need to be revised. In the modified county, school and municipal functions would continue to be administered by separate authorities. If experience with the modified county proved the desirability of integrating school and municipal administration under a single authority, transition to the full county system would be a relatively simple matter.

Financing Education in Saskatchewan

Costs of Education

39. *Public expenditures for education in the province reached a high of over $40 million in 1953.* Per capita costs of education have increased as population has declined, but increased personal income has kept expenditures for

education a relatively stable proportion of personal income. All government expenditures have risen in the postwar years, but expenditures for education as a proportion of government expenditures have declined slightly. Although government grants have nearly tripled since the early 1940's, grants as a proportion of government expenditures on education have been declining slightly. Although grants in total have grown, the school tax paid by rural ratepayers has not been reduced. The levy for education in rural municipalities has become progressively higher relative to net farm income since 1951. The levy in 1954 constituted a sharply higher proportion due to a drop in farm income.

Revenues for Education

40. *Revenues for education are derived largely from local taxes, government grants, loans, and debentures.* From 1946 to 1953, total revenues increased two and one-half times. Non-operating receipts, principally loans, have increased in importance in the financing of education, while taxes have been declining in relative importance. The increase in debentures and, in so far as they are long-term obligations, in loans represents the assumption of increased fixed costs which restrict the flexibility of educational spending.

41. *The total educational levy and local tax rates have both increased greatly since 1946.* The total levy, however, has increased more than tax rates because of revised assessments. Tax arrears are serious in units with low assessment. Any further tax increases or a decline in income will further aggravate an already critical situation. Conversely, any programs to stabilize farm incomes will make possible more effective educational planning and financing.

42. *The educational levy has increased relatively more than the total municipal levy in the past eight years and now represents approximately 47 per cent of the total levy.* In all municipalities, however, the percentage increase in the educational levy has been comparable to the increase in the levy for public works, while in rural municipalities the levy for public works has increased more, proportionately, than that for education.

43. *Loans and debentures increased from 6 per cent of total receipts in 1941 to 31 per cent in 1953.* Larger school units and city elementary school districts have relied most heavily on loans and debentures. Larger units may obtain loans from the Provincial Government at interest rates of 4 to 5 per cent until they become permanently established. The use of increasing amounts of borrowed money at normal interest rates, however, may create difficulties in the future financing of education.

44. *Although the amounts of all types of grants have increased, equalization grants and special building grants have increased relatively more than all others.* In 1953 they represented 57 per cent of total grants. Increases in building and equipment grants relative to total grants and the increase in borrowing reflect the high capital costs of centralization of school facilities. Federal funds through the Dominion-Provincial Vocational Schools' Assistance Agreement have provided approximately 12 per cent of total capital grants in the past seven years and thus have been very useful in capital financing.

Expenditures for Education

45. *Operating expenditures for administration, maintenance, and operation of all school districts increased from $11.5 million in 1941-42 to $37.9 million in 1953-54.* Within operating expenditures, expenditures for conveyance, auxiliary services, and capital and debt charges increased considerably more than other operating costs. Proportionately, non-operating expenditures increased considerably more than operating expenditures. Although capital expenditures as a proportion of operating costs have been increasing, the increases have not kept pace with total capital requirements. Non-unit districts, particularly village and city elementary districts, have increasingly resorted to debentures to finance their capital needs.

46. *Centralization of school facilities is changing the nature of educational financing by shifting the emphasis from current revenues and expenditures to capital loans and expenditures.* This change is demonstrated by the increase in capital expenditures as a proportion of operating receipts, the increase in special building and equipment grants, and the increase in debenture financing.

Economics of Regrouping

47. *Centralization of school facilities entails new costs for conveyance and facilities, but at the same time savings are achieved in cost of instruction and administration.* In 1953-54, 1,451 districts were conveying students, at a cost of slightly over $1 million, 90 per cent of which was spent by larger units. That economies can be achieved by regrouping is shown by the fact that between 1946 and 1951 per student costs increased more in units with low centralization than in highly centralized units. Although centralization effects economies, revenues from grants decline as the number of schools declines. The amount of savings is therefore determined by the relationship between the number of rooms closed and the capital expenditures required to accommodate students at the central location. Economies can be gained if two districts can be closed and conveyed for every one room required in a central location.

Equalization of the Costs of Education

48. *The larger school unit tends to equalize costs of education within its area; provincial equalization grants are utilized to minimize differences in costs among districts and units.* Although these grants have been of great value, they do not provide equity for a minimum standard of education since larger unit tax rates are at present in inverse ratio to assessments. To equalize the burden of educational financing still further, all schools should be administered by a common type of administration, and an equalization formula should be used which takes into account population sparsity, an elementary-secondary school cost differential, and the cost of a minimum standard of education.

49. *Differences among provinces in tax resources for education can be remedied only by a federal equalization program.* Such a program would serve both to broaden the tax base for education and to augment the resources of provinces with low taxpaying ability — an essential prerequisite to establishing an acceptable Canadian standard of minimum expenditure per pupil.

Staffing Saskatchewan Schools

Shortage of Qualified Teachers

50. *Despite various measures to increase the supply of teachers, a shortage of qualified teachers still exists.* Although the proportion of unqualified teachers was reduced by more than half from 1949 to 1954, in 1954, 765 persons holding teaching positions (8.7 per cent of the teaching force) had less than minimum qualifications. As a measure of the shortage of teachers, the number of study supervisors employed is significant. In 1948, 524 study supervisors were employed; by the fall of 1955 the number had been reduced to 133.

51. *The shortage of qualified teachers can be explained by the loss of trained teachers from the province and from the profession.* Saskatchewan loses annually about 10 per cent of its trained teachers. Nearly 60 per cent of withdrawals are because of marriage, retirement, or health, and 26 per cent because of transfers to other vocations and locations. This loss of trained teachers is only partly made up by new recruits to the profession. The annual graduating class of approximately 600 from Teachers College — 7 per cent of the total teaching force of the province—is enough to offset the loss of 7 per cent of teachers who leave for marriage or retirement but not enough to offset the additional 3 per cent who leave for other vocations or locations.

Factors Contributing to the Teacher Shortage

52. *Apart from marriage, retirement, and withdrawal for health reasons, teachers list inadequacy of salaries and accommodation, isolation and lack of social life in rural areas, and inadequate facilities and equipment as factors which are most responsible for the current teacher shortage.*

53. *Teachers' salaries are related to the shortage of teachers.* Average teachers' salaries in Saskatchewan are still lower than average salaries in some other provinces, although the differential has been narrowed by recent adjustments in Saskatchewan. Average minimum salaries in Saskatchewan for teachers with more than one year experience are higher than in the other western provinces but maximum salaries are not so high. Moreover, in the years 1950-1953, average teachers' salaries in Saskatchewan were lower than average wages of industrial workers and general duty nurses in the province, although here too the differential has been decreasing.

54. *Other aspects of salary, such as compensation for administrative duties, may be related to the shortage of teachers.* An examination of fringe benefits enjoyed by teachers in Saskatchewan, however, reveals that they are at least comparable to conditions in most other types of employment.

55. *Differentials in teacher salaries among various school units and rural-urban inequalities in salaries in non-unit areas still exist.* But the lack of correlation between salaries and movement of teachers among units as well as the fact that teachers move to urban areas with little or no salary improvement indicate that the relocation of teachers within the profession may be strongly affected by conditions of work other than salary.

56. *Working and living conditions of rural teachers contribute to the shortage of teachers in rural areas.* Poor accommodations, the isolation

of rural teaching and the lack of social life, inadequate facilities and equipment, and ungraded classrooms all contribute to the movement of teachers from rural to urban schools as they gain in experience. As long as there is a teacher shortage, those districts which fail to provide adequate facilities will suffer most.

57. *The great majority of teachers come from farms, while the smallest number come from cities.* Length of experience, at least up to five years, has no effect on retaining teachers. Regardless of background, however, the tendency among teachers is to move from rural to urban positions.

Effects of Teacher Shortage

58. *The teacher shortage, which has resulted in the use of study supervisors and correspondence courses, has undoubtedly had a significant effect on the educational aspirations and attainment of many rural young people.* In addition, because of the use of many teachers with substandard qualifications, the status of the profession has been lowered. Another result of the shortage has been the loss of interest on the part of many ratepayers whose financial contribution to education has been sufficient to justify service by a qualified teacher.

59. *The shortage of teachers has prompted improved salaries, increased recruitment programs with financial aid for training, improved standards for qualification, and has also had an effect on centralization of facilities.* These measures will do much to improve not only recruitment but also retention of trained teachers.

Retention of Pupils in Saskatchewan Schools

Need for Education

60. *A minimum acceptable standard of education is the completion of high school education.* The welfare of individuals and society as a whole requires that citizens in the modern world be equipped to contribute to social progress, to understand and adapt themselves to a changing environment, to acquire new skills and to be able to make full use of new social and economic techniques. Particularly for modern farming with its large capital investment, mechanization, and commercialization is education in agricultural science and commercial practices necessary. But lack of educational facilities, scarcity of teachers, sparse population, and the need for family labour on the farm have limited many rural people to a low educational attainment.

Level of Retention

61. *Analysis of school attendance, even when qualified by the net loss of pupils through migration from the province, shows a low level of continuation from Grade VI through high school.* Although there has been a trend towards increasing retention of Grade VI students to Grade IX and Grade X, there has been no improvement in recent years in the retention to Grades XI and XII. Furthermore, once in high school, students tend to drop out in approximately the same proportion now as they did in years past. Continuation of Grade IX students to subsequent grades has remained reasonably stable around the levels of 75 per cent to Grade X, 58 per cent to Grade XI, and

40 per cent to Grade XII. The retention of students in Saskatchewan is below that in British Columbia, Alberta, and Manitoba.

Factors Related to Retention

62. *Since more than half of Saskatchewan's school age children live on farms, the availability of high school facilities for rural youth is a factor related to retention.* Although the ratio of high school rooms to school age population has increased substantially, availability of adequate high school facilities has not improved in terms of distance from home to school. The average radius served by each high school building (excluding one-room rural schools) is approximately 28 miles, assuming ideal distribution. If no conveyance is provided, farm families are faced with either maintaining their children in town or permitting them to drop out of school. When it is considered that incomes among a large proportion of farm families are inadequate, the alternative of maintaining farm students in town involves prohibitive costs even though school units may contribute part of the cost.

63. *Where curriculum is diversified (includes non-academic electives), retention is substantially higher than where curriculum is limited to a straight academic course.* Although some of the disparity may be attributable to factors other than curriculum, nevertheless schools operating under the Secondary Education Act (collegiates) retain two-thirds of their Grade IX students to Grade XII; small high schools retain only one-third. Retention in the three technical schools is no greater than retention in the small high schools, except in Grade XI, which indicates that students interested in straight vocational training are not retained to high school graduation in significant proportions. A diversified curriculum is possible only where enrolment is large enough to make economical use of specialized teaching and costly equipment, and its value in retention will be useful to the degree that it is made accessible to the majority of students. Urban collegiates in 1951-52 had average enrolments of 392; small high schools had 8. Diversification of curriculum for the 60 per cent of high school students served by small high schools thus depends on centralization of high school facilities.

64. *The lack of vocational guidance services in upper elementary grades may hinder retention of students.* If students were informed of vocational opportunities made possible by increased education, continuation in school might be fostered.

65. *The shortage of qualified teachers has also contributed to low retention of students.* Lack of interest in school and the failure to become properly oriented to the learning process are related to the ability, vision, and attitudes of teachers. The short training, low experience, and high rate of turnover among rural teachers has an effect on the quality of teaching in rural schools. Since student attitudes towards school develop in the elementary grades, the quality of teaching affects retention of students. The use of correspondence courses for high school students provides a lonely and unstimulating atmosphere for study.

66. *Rural-urban differences are apparent in retention.* In the 15-19 year age group in 1951, 57 per cent of rural non-farm youth, 54.5 per cent of urban youth and 44 per cent of farm youth were attending

school. In the 20-24 year age group, attendance at school is highest among urban youth, followed by those of rural non-farm and farm origin.

67. *Factors associated with low retention affect farm youth more than other sections of the population and operate particularly with respect to farm boys.* Although 10 to 15 per cent more girls continue to high school than do boys, once in high school girls and boys reach Grade XII in about the same proportions. Boys drop out sooner on the average, while the largest drop-out of girls occurs between Grades XI and XII. When comparisons are made by both sex and rural-urban locations, it is clear that farm boys drop out earliest and in the greatest numbers. Farm girls drop out at the next highest rate, but they complete more years of schooling than farm boys. Other boys and girls, whether in cities or villages, attend school in about equal proportions (56 per cent), although among those who drop-out, city youth attain a higher level of education before leaving school.

68. *Although average farm income does not appear to explain low rural high school attendance, the distribution of income among farm people may affect continuation in school.* Urban incomes are more evenly distributed than farm incomes. Proportionately more farmers than urban wage earners fall in the lower income classification. Further differences in real income exist between the urban worker and the farmer, since the farmer pays more for services such as education, roads, and electrification. The cost of maintaining children away from home to attend high school is only one example of the higher costs of farm living.

69. *Further studies of the Saskatchewan environment are necessary to determine more fully the relationship between the socio-economic status of the family and continuation in school.* It appears that income level and educational attainment of the parents affect continuation in school. Occupation of the parent is important as an index of income level and as a determinant of attitudes towards education. These facts are clear:

(a) Children of Saskatchewan families of below average economic status drop out of school at approximately three times the rate of children from the above average group.

(b) Children of Saskatchewan farmers drop out of school at a higher rate than do children of other proprietors and managers.

(c) Children of low-skill labourers drop out at the highest rate.

(d) Nearly 60 per cent of Saskatchewan's adult population has had no high school education. Among urban adults, the proportion is 43 per cent, compared to 69 per cent of farm adults and 58 per cent of rural non-farm adults.

Implications of Low Retention

70. *The low educational attainment of farm parents, the level of income of the majority of farm families, the lack of facilities in rural areas for a diversified high school curriculum, and the relatively lower teaching standards in rural schools all encourage perpetuation of the high rate of rural drop-outs.* Since parents tend to perpetuate their level of educational attainment in their children, the social implications of low retention are serious.

71. *The economic implications of a low level of retention are also serious.* Farm employment opportunities are diminishing, and rural youth are seeking work in cities or other provinces. Youth with low educational attainment tend to be employed in low-skilled labour occupations. Industrial employment opportunities within the province are limited.

Continuation to Higher Education

72. *Demand for professional and semi-professional skills in Saskatchewan is higher than at any time in the past.* Shortages exist in a number of professional categories in the provincial civil service, and there are indications that similar shortages exist among private employers. Shortages result from both a lack of students and the emigration of Saskatchewan graduates to other provinces and the United States.

73. *Continuation of any substantially greater proportion of students to higher education depends first upon increasing the number of high school graduates.* Only one Grade VI student out of five eventually completes high school. Of those who graduate, more than half continue to some kind of professional training.

74. *The costs of higher education limit the numbers of those who might otherwise enroll in professional training.* The cost of one year's attendance at the University, including an estimate of lost earnings, ranges from $1,750 to $1,900. When this is considered in relation to the low cash incomes of a majority of Saskatchewan farmers, the restrictive influence of the cost factor is clear.

75. *Skilled vocational counsel in high schools could provide a large measure of the incentive necessary to continue to higher education.* At the same time such counsel could probably improve the general level of retention through high school. Few Saskatchewan high schools are equipped to offer skilled vocational guidance.

76. *Scholarships and bursaries provide financial aid for a maximum of 6 per cent of the undergraduates at the University of Saskatchewan.* Many of the 150 scholarships offered are for nominal amounts. The Massey Commission has suggested that to train Canada's ablest young men and women the number of scholarships and bursaries should at least be equal to 20 per cent of university enrolment. By this measure, the University of Saskatchewan requires nearly 300 more scholarships of much more generous proportions than those offered at present.

77. *Student drop-outs during first year University are excessively high.* While many factors contribute to this situation, there is merit in considering the establishment of skilled counselling services for university students.

Vocational Education

78. *The social and economic changes in the Saskatchewan environment have made vocational education an important issue in modern education.* Advances in agricultural technology, together

with declining opportunities in farming and increasing industrial and commercial occupations, have heightened the need for both farm and non-farm vocational training.

79. *Vocational education is available in Saskatchewan through various types of programs.* The Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program offers short courses in agriculture and home economics; The Canadian Vocational Training Program provides training for unemployed workers and for apprentices. The only vocational programs which lead to certificates of qualification are the provincial apprenticeship program under the Department of Labour, the School of Agriculture course at the University, and courses offered through the Canadian Vocational Training Program. Total first year enrolments in these courses have averaged about 250, with completions falling below that figure.

80. *Technical collegiates and composite high schools provide some technical training.* The technical collegiates offer a full academic course and a varied program of shop, home economics, and commercial courses. Except for motor mechanics graduates, manual arts students receive little or no credit towards their apprenticeship training. Composite high schools provide more limited vocational education than technical collegiates, with students limited to three vocational electives.

81. *Vocational education must be considered on two levels, each with differing objectives.* The first level has as its principal objective the imparting of specific skills leading to employment. The needs of farm youth seeking urban employment and the manpower needs of the province's expanding industries must be met by intensive vocational training of this type. Such training is largely beyond the capacity of high schools to provide. The second level of vocational education is one which can form an integral part of a balanced high school curriculum. In this frame of reference, vocational classes can contribute to a more complete education, to bridging the gap between theory and its practical application, and to retaining a higher proportion of students through high school.

82. *General expansion of vocational training in high schools will require overcoming problems posed by additional costs, sparsity of population, and lack of trained teachers.* Technical or composite school facilities are not available to students in 26 larger units. Financial problems involved in expansion of vocational classes include the financing of substantial capital requirements—which could be met in part from federal-provincial contributions under the Vocational Schools' Assistance Agreement—and additional costs of maintenance, operation, and conveyance. Sparsity of population presents a problem in securing adequate concentrations of students at accessible locations. Finally, teachers trained both in the vocational subjects and in educational methods would be required.

83. *Present programs of vocational training for non-farm employment fail to meet the needs of displaced farm youth or of the province's expanding industries.* Technical collegiates could meet a greater part of the need for urban students if their programs offered on-the-job training and were more fully co-ordinated with the provincial apprenticeship training program. Total requirements, however, point to the need for a provincial

training institute. Such an institute, to be successful, would require the full co-operation of industry, the trades, the Department of Education, and the Department of Labour. It should be located in that center of population which offered the widest opportunities for on-the-job training.

84. *High school vocational training in agriculture should be offered as part of a balanced curriculum leading to graduation with a standard certificate.* Evidence indicates that intensive agricultural training at the high school level—even in farming communities—is not satisfactory because (a) fewer than half of those initially enrolled will complete the course and (b) only half of those who graduate will remain in agriculture. Vocational courses which can provide some orientation in agriculture combined with an effective vocational guidance program would appear to be the more effective approach to agricultural training in high school.

85. *Out-of-school courses in vocational agriculture available to both beginning farmers and more mature farmers offer the most promising means of providing agricultural training in the community.* Young farmers' clubs, exemplified in the experimental program in the Kindersley larger school unit, can provide the basic organization for such instruction. Larger school units, rather than the agricultural representative service or the extension department of the University, are in the most favourable position to administer out-of-school programs. The availability to the unit of federal funds to assist in vocational training, the power of the unit to raise funds through local taxation, and the resources of the unit in buildings and facilities reinforce this conclusion.

86. *The School of Agriculture should continue as the foremost institute in the province offering vocational agricultural training.* Intensive vocational training of high standard can be provided best through continuation and expansion of this provincial institute. Community programs will fulfill an important but supplementary role. To increase the accessibility of the School to a much broader group of students, either more and larger scholarships will be required or the costs of attendance must be reduced. The expansion of the training program to include field supervision of farm projects on students' home farms would greatly enhance the value of the course.

Continuing Education for Adults

87. *The standards of formal education for rural youth rest on the foundation of an alert, inquiring, and informed adult society.* Beyond this, the continued education of adults is essential to the preservation of democracy and to personal and community development.

88. *The education of adults differs from formal schooling.* Areas of difference include the voluntary nature of participation, the maturity of the students, the informality of the learning situation, the diversity of the subject matter, and the range of available methods.

89. *Broad areas of interest in continuing education may be defined as social and economic affairs, the cultural arts, and physical recreation.* Responsibility for the promotion of these interests is shared

by voluntary organizations, governments, and universities. Of these, the voluntary organizations are of primary importance, but they must rely on the resources of government and university.

90. *A number of limitations hamper the effectiveness of voluntary organizations.* These include overorganization, lack of co-ordination and integration, limited financial resources, concentration of leadership in relatively few citizens, and underemphasis on serious study of social and economic affairs.

91. *Despite prolific activities, the contribution of voluntary organizations to continuing education at the provincial level is restricted by limited co-ordination.* There is no lack of organizations for the development of continuing education; the primary need is for some medium whereby each organization's appropriate contribution can be explored, the contributions of organizations with overlapping objectives can be co-ordinated, and new programs provided to meet new needs.

92. *The university's acceptance of its role in continuing education is fairly recent.* Universities are now recognized as a primary source of the knowledge, personnel, and skills essential to successful programs. University trained persons will occupy an increasing number of leadership positions in community organizations. The task of the professional adult educator requires exacting training. Continued training and research activities are required in adapting continuing education to modern conditions. In all of these aspects the universities are, by their very nature, required to provide the essential leadership.

93. *The University of Saskatchewan is seriously deficient in resources if it is to be an effective participant in the continuing education of adults.* Opportunities for training and research in the social sciences and the humanities provide the core of continuing education at standards consistent with the traditional role of the university. These areas of knowledge are at present undeveloped relative to the resources of the physical sciences. To overcome this deficiency, stronger departments of social sciences and humanities should be developed. To complement them, the function of the University Adult Education Service should be redefined to provide qualified personnel for the training of professional and non-professional workers in adult education, to provide consultative resources and special materials, and to permit active leadership in defining adult education as a field of knowledge in the twentieth century environment.

94. *Governments have a distinct contribution to make to continuing education for adults.* Specifically, their contribution lies in preparing citizens for social and political responsibility. The formal participation of governments in improving the material welfare of citizens has outpaced their participation in education directed towards responsible exercise of democratic functions. While the study of social and economic issues will often reflect political or philosophical viewpoints, governments must use every means at their disposal consistent with acceptable principles of freedom of inquiry to further the development of continuing education.

95. *The Federal Government is making useful contributions through the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation and the National Film Board.* Other federal activities have not been reviewed. Citizens' Forum and

National Farm Radio Forum are examples of national programs aimed directly at the study of social and economic issues through use of the national radio network. Unfortunately, neither of these programs has been utilized in Saskatchewan to the extent that their importance requires. The new medium of television offers unprecedented opportunities for continuing education. It is vital that the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation's role in developing and controlling radio and television be maintained and expanded, but that a more effective application of these media be explored and applied in continuing education.

96. *The Government of Saskatchewan does not possess the financial resources necessary for fully effective use of radio and film as mass media of communication.* It does, however, have access to voluntary organizations, which collectively provide one of the most effective channels for voluntary citizen activity directed towards personal, community, and civic improvement. Examination of a selection of Provincial Government programs under the Department of Education revealed consistent concern for program development through voluntary organizations. The Saskatchewan Arts Board, the Saskatchewan Council on Public Affairs, the Saskatchewan Recreation Advisory Council, the Farmer-Labour-Teacher Institute, and the Group Development Institute are outstanding examples.

97. *There is need for more precise Provincial Government policy and more extensive government assistance in furthering opportunities for continuing the education of adults in Saskatchewan.* Most voluntary organizations need financial assistance in developing their educational programs. Assistance must be tendered in such a way that the essential independence of voluntary organizations is retained.

98. *The administrative separation of several related adult education agencies in the Department of Education greatly complicates the development of integrated adult education service within the Department.* Audio-visual facilities, the Physical Fitness and Recreation Division, and the Adult Education Division are all oriented towards serving the needs of adult citizens. Rural libraries, serviced by the Provincial Library, also provide basic information needs. Study should be given to the administrative efficiencies and economies which could result from a closer integration of these services.

99. *Despite advanced library legislation, adequate library facilities are still not available to most rural residents.* Good reading materials provide the foundation of any program of continuing education. Regional libraries have provided a form of organization whereby resources equivalent to a large city library can be brought within convenient distance of the rural citizen. Slow progress in developing regional libraries, however, indicates the need for greater government initiative in utilizing the demonstration "bookmobile," in revising the basis for local finance, and in instituting a change in voting requirements for regional libraries.

100. *The school in the community offers one of the most promising centers for continuing the education of adults at the local level.* It is improbable, however, that educational leaders are yet in a position to provide the active leadership required to develop such a community school. An immediate

and modest beginning can be made through local citizens' councils working in close collaboration with school officials. Such councils could receive financial aid from the Provincial Government and technical aid from the University. In the construction of new schools, special effort should be made to plan for community facilities.

101. *The organization of continuing education in Saskatchewan is greatly confused.* The urgent need for an accelerated program makes an early conference imperative. Such a conference should be followed by a period of careful study and discussion to the end that the roles of government, university, and voluntary groups may be more clearly defined and available resources more effectively utilized.

Public Proposals for Solution of Problems of Education

102. *As the main measure to remedy the shortage of qualified teachers, the rural public recommended increased basic salaries and improved fringe benefits.* In addition, they felt that increased centralization of schools to decrease the number of teachers needed, improved living accommodations for rural teachers, improved training of teachers, and financial aid to prospective teachers would increase the supply of qualified teachers.

103. *To meet the problem of retaining students in school, it was recommended that standards of instruction for rural children be raised, high school facilities be made available by providing transportation or dormitories, and the curriculum be diversified to develop the potentialities of all students.*

104. *While favouring a broader curriculum and supervised extra-curricular activities, rural people stressed the need for thorough grounding in the three R's.* Increased vocational training was recommended, but opinion was divided on whether vocational training should be offered as part of the high school curriculum or in vocational schools. Recommendations to facilitate professional education included financial aid to students, more varied training facilities, and decentralization of training facilities.

105. *Majority opinion favoured centralization of school facilities, particularly high school, but rural communities were divided as to the best location of centralized facilities.* Some favoured central rural locations; others pressed for town attendance areas. Planning of centralization for adequate attendance areas was considered essential to realize maximum benefits for education.

106. *Rural people recommended closer co-ordination between larger unit boards and municipal councils.*

107. *The most prominent single recommendation on the financing of education was for federal aid to education.* Recommendations for greater provincial assistance and for revisions in the tax levying and collecting procedures were also made. Rural people particularly wished to remedy inequities in tax burdens and achieve closer integration between school and municipal administrations in the financing of education.

108. *Rural people urged improvement in participation in educational affairs and recommended the establishment and activation of Home and School Associations and the use of the school for adult education and community projects as a means towards this end.* A revised procedure for electing school trustees was also suggested—that they be elected directly by the ratepayers instead of from the district boards.

CHAPTER XIV

Recommendations

The broad terms of reference of the Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life directed specific attention to the importance of inquiry and recommendations regarding "the further adaptation of . . . educational services to meet changing rural conditions." In its study of educational conditions, not only in Saskatchewan but also in related areas on the North American continent, the Commission has been impressed by the remarkable progress made in Saskatchewan in adapting the educational system to present day conditions and demands. It was to be expected that a comprehensive review of our rapidly changing conditions would reveal important new areas for development. Before indicating the recommendations which have emerged from this study it will be useful to state briefly the broad objectives which are expected to dominate the attention of educational authorities and public-spirited citizens in the immediate future. They are:

1) The continued regrouping of existing school facilities in village and town centers (except in special circumstances) to facilitate higher standards of education, with specific attention to:

a) the establishment of suitable primary and secondary school attendance areas;

b) the construction of appropriately located and functionally planned school buildings;

c) the establishment of properly located conveyance routes;

d) the provision of diversified curricula designed to provide educational experiences leading to adequate preparation for present day living;

e) the further integration of rural and urban educational facilities;

f) the development of opportunities for continuing education beyond the formal school years.

2) The further improvement of the larger unit of school administration with specific attention to:

a) establishing a common type of administration throughout the rural educational system;

b) the adjustment of boundaries for better conformity to existing "natural" communities;

c) increasing the participation and understanding of ratepayers and parents;

d) developing more effective methods of administration with special emphasis upon budgeting and planning.

3) The development of increased opportunities for professional and vocational training to satisfy a growing demand for technical personnel and to prepare rural young people more adequately for both farm and non-farm occupations.

4) The improvement of teacher training institutions to increase professional competence and to encourage the acceptance of teaching as a professional career.

5) The development of more comprehensive programs for the continuing education of adults in social and economic affairs, the cultural arts, and physical recreation.

Larger Units of School Administration

The findings of this Commission have shown that the larger school unit has been a necessary and desirable adjustment to changing conditions in rural Saskatchewan. However, in view of the unanticipated changes which have occurred in recent years and the knowledge now available as to the most appropriate area of association to be included in the larger unit, it is recommended:

Recommendation No. 1. That the opportunity should be utilized to redefine the boundaries of larger school units in conjunction with a reorganization of municipal government as recommended in the Commission's report on Rural Roads and Local Government, or, in the event the proposed reorganization is not undertaken, that early provision be made for redefining the boundaries of each larger school unit to ensure its closest possible conformance to the larger trade-centered community.

Recommendation No. 2. That legislation be enacted by the Government of Saskatchewan to (a) establish the unorganized superintendencies as larger units of school administration, and (b) incorporate existing consolidated school districts and town districts into those larger school units which contain them in order to achieve uniformity in type of rural school administration.

Recommendation No. 3. That, in view of the increasing tendency to consolidate rural school activities in village and town centers, every effort be made to encourage the further integration of rural and urban school systems.

Recommendation No. 4. That, in view of the increasing complexity of school administration, (a) the Colleges of Commerce and Education, the Department of Education, and the Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association collaborate in the development of a training program for the secretary-treasurers of larger school units, and (b) the recently established practice of holding school trustees' institutes be continued on an annual basis with special attention to problems associated with budgeting and planning.

Recommendation No. 5. That, in view of the importance of maintaining the democratic principle of direct ratepayer control over elected representatives, the present system of election of unit board trustees be altered to provide for election of trustees by electoral districts.[1]*

Recommendation No. 6. That, although the establishment of larger school units has necessarily removed important responsibilities from local school boards, although election of unit board members by electoral district will further reduce their influence, and although the number of larger attendance areas will increase in the future, nevertheless every effort be made to retain local boards in connection with all open schools and that larger unit boards give constant attention to the allocation of meaningful responsibilities to local boards.

Recommendation No. 7. That, to supplement the responsibilities of the local board, to improve ratepayer participation in school affairs, and to provide better communication between ratepayers and the boards of larger units, the establishment of neighbourhood (village-centered) Home and School Clubs affiliated with a Larger Unit Home and School Council be encouraged.

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[1] See the Commission's Report on Rural Roads and Local Government.

* Commissioner Adams dissents. Commissioner Adams believes that pockets of concentrated population will have an advantage in representation; that the possibility exists that elections will become minor political campaigns with party lines drawn; and that elections would be costly in time and money.

Recommendation No. 8. That, whenever rural schools are closed and associated in a larger attendance area, local district boards be dissolved and the board of the central school be elected from the attendance area as a whole.

Recommendation No. 9. That, although progress has been made in arriving at common understanding of the appropriate relationships of the school superintendent, larger unit secretary-treasurer, and unit board of trustees, and although the relationships among these officials differ in each school unit, consideration be given to calling unit or regional conferences for the purpose of further clarifying and improving the working relationships of these key officials.

The Regrouping of School Facilities

It is evident that an extensive regrouping of rural school facilities is in progress on the North American continent and that the process is only in its beginnings in Saskatchewan. Since such regrouping is having and will continue to have a fundamental effect on the future pattern of rural education, the improvement of community living, and the realization of standards of education in balance with modern needs, it is imperative that regrouping proceed with the fullest possible knowledge of all factors influencing the efficiency of the process. It is therefore recommended:

Recommendation No. 10. That, in accord with the combined objectives of adequate educational opportunities and the convenience and safety of the school population, continued attention be given to the careful regrouping of school facilities to meet the needs of changing rural conditions and local public demand.

Recommendation No. 11. That, wherever possible, elementary school facilities should be maintained or regrouped as closely as possible to the homes of the student population, even though by educational standards the resulting concentration of students is less than ideal. Except in special circumstances, such regrouping will mean centralization in villages or hamlets with provision for appropriate transportation facilities.

Recommendation No. 12. That, wherever possible, the maintenance, establishment, or regrouping of high school facilities should be concentrated in those larger trade centers which permit maximum concentration of students and optimum conditions for economy in conveyance. Where the maintenance of full high school facilities in selected centers does not seem practical, every effort should be made to combine high school rooms for Grades IX and X with multiple-room primary schools in small centers. In any event, it is necessary that every effort be made to establish high school facilities which will encourage maximum enrolment of high school students and their retention in school through high school.

Recommendation No. 13. That school transportation routes should, wherever practical, be arranged in such a way that the buses conveniently serve younger children attending primary schools as well as older youth attending central high schools.

Recommendation No. 14. That, in view of the dangers of faulty relocation of school facilities and the excessive costs and inconvenience which may be involved, the regrouping of school facilities should be undertaken only after probable long-term adjustments have been fully considered. Particular emphasis should be given to competent local surveys of all factors related to future school enrolment.

Recommendation No. 15. That, in view of the difficult technical problems related to regrouping of school facilities, immediate attention be given to the establishment of a Division of School Planning in the Department of Education to design an economical approach to local surveys and to provide consulting services to any unit board requesting assistance.

School Finance

An important determinant of further progress in the improvement of the rural school system is the ability to finance education. The Commission is convinced that adequate capacity to maintain and expand educational programs will not be achieved without balanced recourse to local, provincial, and federal resources. It is therefore recommended:

Recommendation No. 16. That careful consideration be given to the recommendations in the Commission's reports on Farm Income, Agricultural Markets and Prices, and Agricultural Credit, with particular reference to income stabilizing measures.

Recommendation No. 17. That in view of the widespread and significant regrouping of primary and secondary school facilities and the expected continuation of population adjustments, school unit boards be given every encouragement and assistance to develop long-range plans and budgets.

Recommendation No. 18. That, by special act of the Saskatchewan Legislature, a corporation be set up in which the initial common stock of $500,000 will be subscribed by the larger school units in proportion to assessment; that the Corporation act as purchaser of all debentures of Saskatchewan school units; and that it issue debentures on its own behalf, the statutory security being the debentures purchased from the various school units by the Corporation.

Recommendation No. 19. That provincial government expenditures on education be increased relative to other major provincial government expenditures, and that more attention be given to the reduction of inequities in tax burdens between units of high and low assessment.

Recommendation No. 20. That, since persisting inequities in tax burden are due in part to assessment deficiencies in rural assessment and more obviously to rural-urban differences in assessment, the Government of Saskatchewan undertake a careful review of rural assessments and the development of a satisfactory comparable urban assessment, or a reasonable compensatory factor.

Recommendation No. 21. That every effort be made to develop federal-provincial tax agreements which will permit the Province of Saskatchewan to undertake the full development of necessary public services such as education. In the absence of such an agreement every effort should be made to develop an expanded federal program of financial aid to education.

Staffing Saskatchewan Schools

The findings of this Commission have indicated that rural schools in Saskatchewan bear the major burden of inadequate teaching personnel. While Teachers College enrolments may reduce this problem in the near future, there is no evidence that the tendency for qualified teachers to migrate from one-room rural schools to urban positions will diminish. Many factors contribute to these conditions and a solution will come only if attention is given to the gradual improvement of the rural educational environment. It is therefore recommended:

Recommendation No. 22. That continued attention be given to the improvement of conditions affecting the attractiveness of rural teaching with emphasis upon (a) the establishment of teacher salaries in balance with occupations of comparable training and responsibility and, (b) the provision of living accommodations of high standard for married teachers at unit board expense, such accommodation to be rented to teaching personnel.

Recommendation No. 23. That every effort be made to facilitate the establishment of a system of schools in the villages and towns of Saskatchewan which will permit adequate salaries, appropriate equipment, attractive living facilities, and multiple-room school plants. Such programs will have a direct effect on the number of teachers required and will stimulate a professional teaching environment in balance with the difficult demands of present day education.

Recommendation No. 24. That, with improvements in the teaching environment, the provision of adequate salaries and fringe benefits, and the growing demand for fully qualified teachers, increased attention should be given to the further improvement of teacher training institutions in Saskatchewan. As circumstances permit, special attention should be directed to:

a) raising the standards of acceptance for enrolment in Teachers College to the equivalent of University entrance requirements, and

b) replacing the present dispersed program of teacher training with a unified program at the University of Saskatchewan under the direction of a Board of Governors with appropriate representation from the Department of Education and other related organizations. The proposed University program should provide complete two- and four-year teacher training programs as well as facilities for graduate studies.

Increasing Retention of Students

Marked improvement is needed in the proportion of Saskatchewan youth who complete high school, whether they eventually remain on the farm or migrate to urban occupations. While many of the preceding recommendations bear directly on aspects of the educational system which may at present discourage higher levels of education, it is further recommended:

Recommendation No. 25. That in view of the lack of adequate information on the causes of Saskatchewan's low retention of high school students, immediate steps be taken by the Government of Saskatchewan to initiate an exhaustive analysis of the circumstances which discourage higher levels of educational attainment with special reference to the influence of distance from home to school and of the economic status of farm families.

Recommendation No. 26. That in view of the unsatisfied demand for personnel in almost all professions, the relatively low percentage of rural youth who enroll in the University of Saskatchewan, and the increasing costs of higher education, every effort be made to implement the recommendations of the Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters and Sciences to the effect "that the Federal Government maintain and enlarge the system of scholarships, of bursaries and of loans to undergraduates now in operation and known as the Federal-Provincial Vocational Training Plan."

Recommendation No. 27. That in view of the high rate at which students drop out of the University of Saskatchewan during and at the end of the first year of enrolment, consideration be given to the establishment of a central student counselling service within the University.

Recommendation No. 28. That in view of the demonstrated relationship between a diversified high school curriculum and retention in high school, and the need for a curriculum that is adapted to the needs of students who will not continue beyond high school as well as to those who will seek university training, continued attention should be given to the development of courses in homemaking, agriculture, shopwork, art, music, and commercial subjects in all central high schools.

Recommendation No. 29. That in view of the sparsity of school population and the difficulties of transportation in many areas of Saskatchewan, special attention should be given to expansion of the program of providing itinerant programs of instruction by qualified teachers to encourage diversification in the curricula of smaller schools.

Recommendation No. 30. That early attention be given to the development of intensive in-service training programs for selected vocational counsellors, and that vocational guidance centers be established in composite and other central high schools with provision for itinerant services to other high schools in each larger unit of school administration.

Recommendation No. 31. That every effort be made to establish permanently the Dominion-Provincial Vocational Schools' Assistance Agreement.

Vocational Education

In view of the growing emphasis upon industrial development in Saskatchewan and the growing technical requirements for employment in many branches of industry combined with the large and growing numbers of rural youth who must seek urban employment, and in view of the vital importance of commercial and scientific training to success in modern farming, expansion of opportunities for sound vocational education has become an urgent necessity. It is therefore recommended:

Recommendation No. 32. That a program of training in agriculture and homemaking for out-of-school young adults be established in each larger school unit as finance, personnel, and public interest warrants. Such programs should emphasize (a) the organization of clubs for young adults in the 18-25 year age group on a village-centered basis, (b) weekly winter study sessions under the supervision of competent instructors, (c) individual and group farm and home management projects, and (d) such other courses and demonstrations as may from time to time be desired.

Recommendation No. 33. That the out-of-school young adult program be used in developing experimental approaches to test the practicability of vocational education programs for high school students with special emphasis on the wisdom of developing supervised farming projects directed from conveniently located high school centers.

Recommendation No. 34. That early provision be made for the appointment of qualified supervisors of agricultural and homemaking education in the Department of Education, such supervisors to have responsibility for stimulating and co-ordinating the extension of agricultural and homemaking programs to larger school units.

Recommendation No. 35. That provision be made for special matching grants to larger school units to encourage the establishment of scholarships to competent and needy young men wishing to attend the School of Agriculture at the University of Saskatchewan, the value of such scholarships to amount to two-thirds of the cost of attendance at University, the remainder to be borne by the student. Establishment of one such scholarship per larger school unit would ensure full enrolment of competent young men in the School of Agriculture.*

Recommendation No. 36. That further funds be provided to permit the School of Agriculture to carry on educational and promotional activities during the summer months to ensure more intimate acquaintance with the farming situation of students who have completed one year in the School and to acquaint parents and prospective students with the advantages of enrolment in the School of Agriculture.

Recommendation No. 37. That planning begin immediately for an Institute of Technology with special attention to the wisdom of having such an Institute located in Regina to encourage a wide range of non-farm vocational and administrative training. Such an Institute should be under the direction of a Board of Governors representative of the interests most directly involved. Early provision should be made for selection and training of personnel for the proposed institute. Special consideration should be given to having the proposed Institute of Technology closely affiliated with Regina College.

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* Commissioner Adams dissents. Commissioner Adams believes this establishes a cumulative precedent; that one group is being selected for preferred treatment; that funds collected by larger units are for the provision of, and administration of, services within a particular area.

Recommendation No. 38. That provision be made for a program of on-the-job training to be operated in conjunction with the proposed Saskatchewan Institute of Technology.

Continuing Education

This Commission, having in mind the needs of a democracy in which all people share responsibility for economic, social, and political affairs, is strongly of the opinion that greater effort is necessary in providing opportunities for continuing education beyond the years of formal schooling. Continuing education is needed to help people understand the vast complexity of society today, as well as to encourage greater appreciation of the value of the humanities and cultural arts. It is therefore recommended:

Recommendation No. 39. That the Government of Saskatchewan appoint a Citizens' Council for Continuing Education, with provision for a revolving membership representing the major voluntary organizations of the province together with limited representation from the Department of Education and the University of Saskatchewan.

Recommendation No. 40. That the proposed Council for Continuing Education be responsible for the co-ordination, clarification, and stimulation of programs for the education of adults in social and economic affairs, in the cultural arts, and in physical recreation.

Recommendation No. 41. That the Government of Saskatchewan make provision for a liberal system of grants to voluntary organizations for the encouragement of continuing education programs of high standard.

Recommendation No. 42. That the proposed Citizens' Council for Continuing Education be responsible for determining the policy under which grants shall be made available to voluntary organizations in communities throughout Saskatchewan.

Recommendation No. 43. That, in the Department of Education, consideration be given to consolidating appropriate personnel and resources into a single Division of Continuing Education, with specific reference to audio-visual services, the Saskatchewan Recreation Movement, and the Adult Education Division. Consideration should also be given to closer co-ordination of these services and the services provided by the Provincial Library.

Recommendation No. 44. That the Government of Saskatchewan give high priority to the establishment of regional libraries in rural areas throughout the province; that such libraries be established in co-operation with boards of larger units of school administration or (in the event of the establishment of a county system of local government) with county councils; and that greater initiative be assumed by the Government in demonstrating regional library facilities.

Recommendation No. 45. That every possible measure of public support be given to the further development of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation and the National Film Board as national agencies of vital importance to the continuing education of adults in Saskatchewan; and that these two institutions be urged to expand their development of programs in keeping with the freedom of thought so vital to the principles of continuing education in a democratic society, and that greater emphasis be placed on developing films and programs of regional interest.

Recommendation No. 46. That voluntary organizations, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, the Provincial Department of Education, and the University of Saskatchewan co-operate in reviewing the present organization of Citizens' Forum and National Farm Radio Forum to the end that ways may be found to increase the effectiveness of these programs in advancing the social and political responsibility of citizens.

Recommendation No. 47. That provision be made immediately for substantially expanding the personnel and research resources in the social sciences and humanities at the University of Saskatchewan.

Recommendation No. 48. That the function of the Adult Education Services of the University of Saskatchewan be redefined to:

a) transfer activities of a non-technical nature to other adult education agencies in the province;

b) establish an effective training center for professional adult educators;

c) initiate and develop new experimental approaches to meet present day needs in continuing education;

d) develop methods whereby the specialized resources of the University may be made available to Saskatchewan communities with greatest effectiveness;

e) work in close collaboration with social science and humanities specialists in mastering continuing education as a field of knowledge; and

f) establish an extension center in Regina for activities in continuing education in southern Saskatchewan.

Recommendation No. 49. That the proposed Citizens' Council for Continuing Education give specific attention to ways and means whereby local citizen or community councils for continuing education may be developed as a means to new unity in our emerging larger rural communities and as a means to achieve effective use of the proposed system of liberal grants.

Recommendation No. 50. That every effort be made to facilitate the development of the rural school system as the primary center for the continuing education of adults.

Recommendation No. 51. That the Government of Saskatchewan convene a conference of all groups and individuals interested in the further development of continuing education in Saskatchewan, and that such conference have as part of its agenda the consideration of the recommendations of this Commission and the initiation of further studies of the organization of adult education in Saskatchewan.

APPENDIX I

SUPPORTING DATA FOR ILLUSTRATIONS

Foreword

Most of the terms used in the following tables have been defined in this report. To facilitate the use of the tables, however, some of these definitions are consolidated here.

The School Act. Basically, all schools are administered under The School Act. Exclusive of a few high schools and collegiates, all rural, hamlet, village, town, city elementary, and separate schools are directly administered within the provisions of The School Act.

The Secondary School Act. Under the authority of this Act, high school districts, each with a high school board, have been established in cities and some towns. In 1955, 13 high school districts were in operation in Estevan, Battleford, Humboldt, Kamsack, Melfort, Moose Jaw, North Battleford, Prince Albert, Regina, Saskatoon, Swift Current, Yorkton, and Weyburn.

The Vocational Education Act. Three technical collegiates have been established under this Act. These collegiates are administered by the secondary school district boards, each of which has a special vocational education committee.

Consolidated School District. A school district of 36 square miles or more, formed through an amalgamation of local districts, and having a central operating school to which students are conveyed.

Government Aided Schools. Government aided schools are established by a department or departments of government where circumstances do not permit the establishment of regular school districts. In 1954-55, there were 18 such schools. Examples of schools in this category are Metis schools, schools at armed service stations, at physical restoration centers, at the sanitorium, and the Saskatchewan Boys' School.

Private Schools. A number of private schools are operated in the province, most of them by religious organizations. These schools receive no support from the provincial Department of Education, and are not required to report to it. In 1954, there were known to be 36 private schools with an enrolment of 823 in elementary rooms and 3,034 in continuation and high school rooms.

High School Rooms. Provide high school grades only.

Continuation Rooms. Provide for Grade VII and VIII, or Grade VIII, and all or part of the high school program.

Composite Schools. Provide the complete academic high school program, plus any or all of the following vocational electives: home economics, commercial, shop.

Larger Attendance Areas. An area comprising a number of adjacent school districts, the students from which are conveyed to a central operating district.

Northern Area of Administration. Comprises numerous widely scattered settlements in northern Saskatchewan, the 24 schools in which are administered from a central office in Prince Albert. Schools in this area are supported predominantly through government grants.

Receipts and Payments. These terms are used in the Annual Reports of the Department of Education, and refer to the actual cash receipts and cash payments. In varying amounts in different years these amounts differ from total revenues and expenditures. Differences where applicable are recorded as assets and liabilities. Expenditures of school districts, as listed in this report, are actual cash payments in the year indicated.

Operating Receipts. Include primarily receipts from taxes and net government grants, with a limited amount from such other sources as fees.

Non-Operating Receipts. Include moneys from loans, debentures, and a limited amount from such sources as the sale of buildings, equipment, and bonds.

Operating Payments. Include payments in respect of the administration and operation of the school system, including instruction, operation and maintenance, fees, conveyance, auxiliary services, debt charges, and capital expenditures from current receipts.

Non-Operating Payments. Include repayments of borrowed money, plus capital payments from debenture financing.

Debit and Credit Balances. The annual statements of receipts and payments in Department of Education Annual Reports include credit and debit balances in both receipts and payments. These balances are excluded from analyses of annual expenses since they are not actual cash receipts or expenditures in any given year.

Net Government Grants. These are the grants received by districts after deductions have been made for teachers' superannuation payments, Teachers' Federation fees, Treasurer Bonds, and Saskatchewan Trustees' Association fees.

Table 1. (Data for Figure 1)

YIELD AND PRICE VARIABILITY OF WHEAT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1908-1953*

Year	Average Yield	Average Price†	Year	Average Yield	Average Price†
	Bushel per acre	$		Bushel per acre	$
1908	14.5	1.16	1931	8.8	0.60
1909	23.1	1.02	1932	13.6	0.54
1910	15.8	0.97	1933	8 7	0.68
			1934	8.6	0.82
1911	20.8	1.01	1935	10.8	0.85
1912	19.2	0.84			
1913	21.3	0.89	1936	7.5	1.23
1914	13.7	1.32	1937	2.6	1.32
1915	25.1	1.13	1938	10.0	0.62
			1939	19.1	0.77
1916	16.3	2.06	1940	17.1	0.74
1917	14.3	2.21			
1918	10.0	2.24	1941	12.0	0.85
1919	8.5	2.63	1942	24.7	1.03
1920	11.2	1.99	1943	15.2	1.37
			1944	18.3	1.44
1921	13.9	1.30	1945	12.4	1.83
1922	20.3	1.11			
1923	21.2	1.07	1946	14.6	1.83
1924	10.2	1.69	1947	12.2	1.83
1925	18.8	1.51	1948	13.3	1.83
			1949	11.8	1.83
1926	16.2	1.46	1950	16.0	1.86
1927	19.5	1.46			
1928	23.3	1.24	1951	20.8	1.84
1929	11.1	1.24	1952	26.5	1.82
1930	14.4	0.64	1953	22.7	1.56‡

SOURCE: Yield data obtained from *Handbook of Agricultural Statistics*, Part I — Field Crops, Dominion Bureau of Statistics; price data obtained from H. G. L. Strange, *A Short History of Prairie Agriculture*, Appendix IX, Searle Grain Company Limited, Winnipeg, 1954.

* Prices rounded to nearest cent.

† Average price per bushel No. 1 Northern (Fort William - Port Arthur).

‡ Reported by Rt. Hon. C. D. Howe, in the House of Commons, May 16, 1955.

Table 2. (Data for Figure 2)

FARM SIZE TRENDS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1931-1951

Year	Total Number of Farms	Number of Farms per Size Class			
		Quarter Sections	Half Sections	Three Quarters	Four Quarters and Over
1931	136,472	44,108	47,257	19,081	26,026
1936	142,391	49,880	47,793	18,691	26,027
1941	138,713	43,523	46,790	20,165	28,235
1946	125,612	32,429	42,739	19,965	30,479
1951	112 018	20,988	36,522	19,932	34,576

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Table 3. (Data for Figure 3)

TOTAL FARMS BY SIZE AND REGION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951*

Size (Quarter Sections)	Prairie	Park	Province
1	4,851	14,542	19,393
2	13,015	18,209	31,224
3	11,249	10,105	21,354
4	10,638	5,852	16,490
5-6	9,347	3,524	12,871
7+	7,095	1,355	8,450
Total	56,195	53,587	109,782

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, special compilation by Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

* Farms under one quarter section in size are not included.

Table 4. (Data for Figure 4)

NUMBER OF MACHINES OF VARIOUS TYPES ON SASKATCHEWAN FARMS, 1926-1951

Type of Machine	1926	1931	1936	1941	1946	1951
Tractors	26,674	43,308	42,050	54,129	71,596	106,664
Combines	—*	6,019	6,420	11,202	22,498	42,997
Trucks	3,267	10,938	10,338	21,285	27,756	52,626
Binders	—*	129,177	120,033	—*	91,346	70,584
Threshers	—*	27,046	24,540	21,486	19,936	19,221
Automobiles	52,177	65,094	54,464	57,093	58,022	62,963

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

* Data not available.

Table 5. (Data for Figure 5)

DISTRIBUTION OF FARMS BY SIZE CATEGORIES, AND NUMBER REPORTING TRACTORS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Size (Quarter Sections)	Number of Farms	Farms Reporting Tractors	
		Number	Per Cent
1	21,649	10,592	48.9
2	31,224	24,963	79.9
3	21,354	19,112	89.5
4	16,490	15,322	92.9
5-6	12,871	12,299	95.6
7+	8,430	8,019	95.1
Total	112,018	90,307	80.6

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Table 6. (Data for Figure 6)

TOTAL FARMS BY SIZE AND REGION, AND NUMBER REPORTING TRACTORS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Region	Size (Quarter Sections)	Number of Farms*	Farms Reporting Tractors	
			Number	Per Cent
Prairie	1	4,851	1,968	40.6
	2	13,015	9,566	73.5
	3	11,249	9,769	86.8
	4	10,638	9,767	91.8
	5-6	9,347	8,888	95.1
	7+	7,095	6,723	94.8
	Total	56,195	46,681	83.1
Park	1	14,542	8,298	57.1
	2	18,209	15,397	84.6
	3	10,105	9,343	92.5
	4	5,852	5,455	93.2
	5-6	3,524	3,411	96.8
	7+	1,355	1,296	95.6
	Total	53,587	43,200	80.6

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, special compilation by Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

* Farms under one quarter section in size are not included.

Table 7. (Data for Figure 7)

RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1901-1951

Year	Total Population	Urban Population		Rural Population					
				Rural Farm		Rural Non-Farm		Total Rural	
	Number	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1901	91,279	14,266	16	—*	—*	—*	—*	77,013	84
1906	257,763	48,462	19	—	—	—	—	209,301	81
1911	492,432	131,395	27	—	—	—	—	361,037	73
1916	647,835	176,297	27	—	—	—	—	471,538	73
1921	757,510	218,958	29	—	—	—	—	538,552	71
1926	820,738	242,532	30	—	—	—	—	578,206	70
1931	921,785	290,905	32	564,012	61	66,868	7	630,880	68
1936	931,547	280,273	30	573,894	62	77,380	8	651,274	70
1941	895,992	295,146	33	514,677	57	86,169	10	600,846	67
1946	832,688	316,760	38	434,019	52	81,909	10	515,928	62
1951†	831,728	370,681	45	399,473	48	61,574	7	461,047	55

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

* Data for 1901 to 1926 not available.

† Rural and urban population figures for 1951 are according to definition of "rural" and "urban" used in 1941 and earlier censuses.

Table 8. (Data for Figure 8)

1. POPULATION OF URBAN CENTERS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1936-1951

Population Size Category	1936		1941		1946		1951	
	Population	No. of Ctrs.	Population	No. of Ctrs.	Population	No. of Ctrs.	Population	No. of Ctrs.
Under 299	51,364	331	53,451	338	52,314	331	47,925	301
300-499	28,470	74	26,497	69	32,618	85	37,625	99
500-999	22,818	37	24,462	37	22,956	35	34,113	51
1,000-4,999	41,267	22	38,853	23	40,184	25	55,774	30
Over 5,000	136,354	6	151,883	7	168,688	8	195,244	8
Farm Population*	573,894		514,677		434,019		399,473	
Total Population	931,547		895,992		832,688		831,728	

2. PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN URBAN POPULATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1936-1951

Population Size Category	Per Cent Change 1936-1941	Per Cent Change 1936-1946	Per Cent Change 1936-1951
Under 299	4	2	— 7
300-499	— 7	15	32
500-999	7	1	50
1,000-4,999	— 6	— 3	35
Over 5,000	11	24	43
Farm Population	—10	—24	—30
Total Population	— 4	—11	—11

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

* Rural non-farm population not included.

Table 9. (Data for Figure 9)

PERCENTAGE OF FARM OPERATORS NOT LIVING ON THEIR FARMS, BY PRAIRIE AND PARK REGIONS AND PROVINCE, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Item	Prairie	Park	Province
Number of farm operators	56,605	55,413	112,018
Number not living on farm	11,684	6,478	18,162
Percentage not living on farm %	20.6	11.6	16.2

SOURCE: *Census of Canada*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Table 10. (Data for Figure 11)

TRENDS IN ENROLMENT IN SCHOOLS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT AND NORTHERN AREA OF ADMINISTRATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-1954*

Year	Total		Rural		Village		Town		City	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1921	177,900	100	102,500	57	31,300	18	21,400	12	22,700	13
1931	221,500	100	130,800	59	39,700	18	22,000	10	29,000	13
1941	190,800	100	114,400	60	33,400	17	18,300	10	24,700	13
1946	163,600	100	88,800	54	32,700	20	18,200	11	23,900	15
1951	158,000	100	73,700	47	35,100	22	21,700	14	27,500	17
1952	158,600	100	71,200	45	35,100	22	23,400	15	28,900	18
1953	162,000	100	64,800	40	35,000	22	23,700	14	38,500	24
1954	169,000	100	61,700	36	36,800	22	28,700	17	41,800	25

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Data are for the school year ending June 30.

Table 11. (Data for Figure 12)

PER CAPITA INCOME AND PER CAPITA EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1926-27 TO 1953-54

		Expenditures for Education			Personal Income Before Taxes		
Year	Total Population	Total	Per Capita	Index 1926-27 = 100	Total	Per Capita	Index 1926 = 100
	000's	$	$		$ millions	$	
1926-27	821	15,191,840	19	100	359	437	100
1931-32	922	14,333,239	16	84	144	156	36
1936-37	932	9,662,037	10	56	168	180	41
1941-42	896	12,231,027	14	78	277	309	71
1946-47	833	19,596,596	24	127	602	723	165
1951-52	832	31,169,015	37	202	1,084	1,303	298
1952-53	843*	35,619,659	42	228	1,184	1,405	322
1953-54	861*	40,772,841	47	256	1,112	1,291	295

SOURCE: *Census of Canada* and *Census of the Prairie Provinces*, *National Accounts Income and Expenditure*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics; *Annual Reports*, Department of Education; and *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

* Data obtained from *Memorandum on Estimated Population of Canada*, June, 1954, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Table 12. (Data for Figure 13)

EDUCATION, PUBLIC WORKS, AND OTHER EXPENDITURES AS PROPORTION OF TOTAL RURAL MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURES, SASKATCHEWAN, 1944-1953

Year	Education Expenditure*		Public Works Expenditure		Other Expenditure		Total Municipal Expenditure
	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	
	$000's		$000's		$000's		$000's
1944	5,671	41.2	2,850	20.7	5,237	38.1	13,758
1946	7,293	40.7	4,232	23.6	6,409	35.7	17,934
1948	8,997	42.2	5,246	24.6	7,059	33.2	21,302
1950	10,387	46.5	5,003	22.4	6,940	31.1	22,330
[illegible]	11,173	47.0	5,447	22.9	7,167	30.1	23,787
1952	12,276	44.5	7,576	27.4	7,755	28.1	27,607
1953	13,873	46.3	8,023	26.8	8,080	26.9	29,976

Source: *Annual Reports*, Department of Municipal Affairs.

* [illegible] is not available before 1944.

Table 13. (Data for Figures 14 and 22)

EXPENDITURES OF ALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1945-1953*

Year	Operating Payments†		Non-Operating Payments‡		Capital Expenditure From Operating Receipts		Total
	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	
	$000's		$000's		$000's		$000's
1945	13,270	90	1,016	7	495	3	14,781
1946	14,921	89	808	5	1,021	6	16,750
1947	16,749	88	463	2	1,869	10	19,081
1948	18,073	85	877	4	2,215	11	21,165
1949	19,766	84	1,114	5	2,601	11	23,481
1950	21,179	82	1,343	5	3,400	13	25,922
1951	22,662	84	1,256	5	2,985	11	26,903
1952	23,911	81	1,720	6	3,820	13	29,451
1953	27,453	80	1,710	5	5,082	15	34,245

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* Debit and credit balances are excluded.

† Capital expenditures from operating receipts have been subtracted from operating payments.

‡ Repayment of bank and other loans has been subtracted from non-operating payments since this category of expense for the most part represents short-term loans which appear elsewhere in the expenditure statement.

Table 14. (Data for Figure 15)

OPERATING RECEIPTS FROM TAXES RELATIVE TO GOVERNMENT GRANTS TO SCHOOL DISTRICTS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-1953

Year	Taxes		Net Government Grants		Total Grants and Taxes
	Amount	Per Cent of Total	Amount	Per Cent of Total	
	$000's		$000's		$000's
1921	9,620	88	1,346	12	10,966
1926	10,229	83	2,034	17	12,263
1931	7,609	78	2,161	22	9,770
1936	5,699	30	1,467	20	7,166
1941	6,854	76	2,174	24	9,028
1946	10,596	77	3,193	23	13,789
1951	16,252	73	6,016	27	22,268
1952	19,197	73	6,970	27	26,167
1953	21,074	75	7,023	25	28,097

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

Table 15. (Data for Figure 16)

RELATIONSHIP OF LOANS AND DEBENTURES TO TOTAL BORROWINGS FOR SCHOOL DISTRICTS UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1921-1953

Year	Total Borrowed	Debentures		Loans*	
		Amount	Per Cent of Total Borrowed	Amount	Per Cent of Total Borrowed
	$000's	$000's		$000's	
1921	3,740	1,476	39.5	2,264	60.5
1926	2,267	884	39.0	1,383	61.0
1931	2,064	239	11.6	1,825	88.4
1936	1,386	80	5.8	1,306	94.2
1941	628	55	8.8	573	91.2
1946	1,858	218	11.7	1,640	88.3
1951	9,648	404	4.2	9,244	95.8
1952	10,998	998	9.1	10,000	90.9
1953	14,240	2,911	20.4	11,329	79.6

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

* A considerable proportion of loans are short-term loans used for operating expenses pending receipt of taxes and grants.

Table 16. (Data for Figure 20)

TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1941-1953

Year	Expenditures by School Districts*		Expenditures by Provincial Government†		Total Expenditures	Index 1946-47 = 100
	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent		
	$000's		$000's		$000's	
1941	7,799	64	4,432	36	12,231	62
1946	13,203	67	6,394	33	19,597	100
1951	20,196	65	10,973	35	31,169	159
1952	22,701	64	12,919	36	35,620	182
1953	26,691	65	14,082	35	40,773	208

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education, and *Public Accounts*, Province of Saskatchewan.

* See footnote, Table 17, Chapter III, for detailed explanation of computation of district expenditures.

† Includes government grants to the University and expenditures for education by other departments.

Table 17. (Data for Figure 21)

RELATIONSHIP OF EQUALIZATION GRANTS TO TOTAL GRANTS IN NON-UNIT SCHOOL DISTRICTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1947-48 TO 1953-54

Year	Equalization Grants	Per Cent of Total Grants	Total Grants
	$000's		$000's
1947-48	204	15.1	1,349
1950-51	262	15.2	1,718
1951-52	252	14.6	1,719
1952-53	431	25.6	1,685
1953-54	309	24.0	1,287

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

Table 18. (Data for Figure 24)

AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN ALL SCHOOLS IN SIX PROVINCES, 1950-52

Year	Newfoundland	Nova Scotia	Ontario	Manitoba	Saskatchewan	British Columbia
	Dollars					
1950	1,205	1,674	2,377	2,108	1,818	2,773
1951	1,186	1,717	2,505	2,224	1,914	3,069
1952	1,210	1,782	2,846	2,346	2,076	3,204

SOURCE: *Teachers' Salaries and Qualifications in Nine Provinces, 1952-1953*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Table 19. (Data for Figure 25)

COMPARISON OF AVERAGE MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SALARIES FOR VARIOUS TYPES OF CERTIFICATION IN A SAMPLE OF UNITS (DISTRICTS) IN THE FOUR WESTERN PROVINCES, 1954-55

Province	Years of Professional Training				
	1 Year	2 Years	3 Years	4 Years	5 Years
	Dollars				
Manitoba (4 districts)	2,200-3,150	2,400-3,350	2,590-3,540	2,855-3,805	
Alberta (3 districts)	2,133-3,200	2,425-3,304	2,717-4,075	3,009-4,462	3,200-4,783
British Columbia (3 districts)	2,192-3,942	2,358-4,208	2,578-4,295	2,745-4,895	2,945-5,162
Saskatchewan (5 units)	2,150-3,040	2,450-3,310	2,770-3,650	3,130-4,165	3,430-4,500

SOURCE: *Salary Bulletin No. 3*, Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, October, 1954.

Table 20. (Data for Figure 26)

AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF ALL TEACHERS FOR SASKATCHEWAN SCHOOLS, ACTUAL AND DEFLATED, 1944-1954*

Year	Average Annual Salaries	
	Actual	Deflated†
	Dollars	
1944	1,167	1,564
1945-46	1,348	1,797
1946-47	1,424	1,837
1947-48	1,515	1,787
1948-49	1,710	1,763
1949-50	1,818	1,818
1950-51	1,914	1,860
1951-52	2,076	1,826
1952-53	2,346	2,014
1953-54	2,602	2,253

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education, 1951-52 and 1953-54, and *Economic Annalist*, Canada Department of Agriculture, February, 1955.

* Prior to 1945, average salaries were calculated on the basis of the calendar year. Since that time, salaries have been calculated on the basis of the school year ending June 30.

† Salaries deflated by Consumer Price Index (1949 equals 100).

Table 21. (Data for Figure 27)

GRADE VI STUDENTS WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES IX, X, XI, AND XII IN SCHOOLS OPERATING UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1950-51

Year of Enrolment in Gr. VI	Number Enrolled in Grade VI	Retention in Grade IX		Retention in Grade X		Retention in Grade XI		Retention in Grade XII	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1940-41	19,333	11,610	60.05	8,528	44.11	7,030	36.36	5,094	26.34
1942-43	18,498	11,693	63.21	8,738	47.24	7,018	37.93	4,626	25.00
1944-45	16,511	10,636	64.41	7,781	47.13	5,843	35.38	4,258	25.78
1946-47	16,162	10,687	66.12	8,0[illegible]	50.00	5,957	36.85	4,090	25.30
1948-49	15,639	10,933	68.82	7,710	49.30	5,905	37.75		
1950-51	15,826	10,710	67.67						

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

Table 22. (Data for Figure 28)

GRADE VI STUDENTS WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES IX, X, XI, AND XII INCLUDING GOVERNMENT CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1950-51

Year of Enrolment in Gr. VI	Number Enrolled in Grade VI	Retention in Grade IX		Retention in Grade X		Retention in Grade XI		Retention in Grade XII	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1940-41	19,390	12,053	62.2	9,226	47.6	8,164	42.1	5,869	30.3
1942-43	18,565	12,647	68.1	9,622	51.8	8,008	43.1	4,980	26.8
1944-45	16,772	11,752	70.1	8,790	52.4	6,456	38.5	4,797	28.6
1946-47	16,406	12,061	73.5	8,973	54.7	6,678	40.1	4,887	29.8
1948-49	15,798	12,303	77.9	8,819	55.8	6,636	42.0		
1950-51	15,937	12,250	76.9						

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

Table 23. (Data for Figure 29)

GRADE IX STUDENTS WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES X, XI, AND XII IN SCHOOLS OPERATING UNDER THE SCHOOL ACT, SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1952-53

Year of Enrolment in Grade IX	Number Enrolled in Grade IX	Retention in Grade X		Retention in Grade XI		Retention in Grade XII	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1940-41	11,751	9,184	78.2	6,697	57.0	4,061	34.6
1942-43	11,438	8,500	74.3	6,363	55.6	4,955	43.3
1944-45	11,967	8,878	74.2	7,108	59.4	5,028	42.0
1946-47	11,077	8,192	74.0	6,291	56.8	4,432	40.0
1948-49	10,671	7,864	73.7	6,054	56.7	4,161	39.0
1950-51	10,763	7,892	73.3	5,878	54.6	4,184	38.9
1952-53	10,539	8,011	76.0				

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

Table 24. (Data for Figure 30)

GRADE IX STUDENTS WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES X, XI, AND XII, INCLUDING GOVERNMENT CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1952-53

Year of Enrolment in Grade IX	Number Enrolled in Grade IX	Retention in Grade X		Retention in Grade XI		Retention in Grade XII	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1940-41	11,879	9,302	78.3	7,182	60.5	4,507	37.9
1942-43	11,687	8,753	74.9	7,458	63.8	6,087	52.1
1944-45	12,794	9,674	75.6	8,326	65.1	5,869	45.9
1946-47	12,395	9,087	73.3	7,242	58.4	4,980	40.2
1948-49	11,963	8,777	73.4	6,724	56.2	4,797	40.1
1950-51	12,223	8,613	70.5	6,758	55.3	4,887	40.0
1952-53	12,129	8,953	73.8				

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

Table 25. (Data for Figure 31)

RETENTION OF STUDENTS IN VARIOUS TYPES OF HIGH SCHOOLS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1944-45 TO 1952-53

1. Schools Under the Secondary Education Act

Year of Enrol-ment in Grade IX	Number Enrolled in Grade IX	Retention in Grade X		Retention in Grade XI		Retention in Grade XII	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1944-45	1,948	1,794	92.1	1,831	94.0	1,473	75.6
1945-46	2,042	1,788	87.6	1,732	84.8	1,289	63.1
1946-47	2,010	1,742	86.7	1,632	81.2	1,255	62.4
1947-48	1,651	1,486	90.1	1,374	83.3	1,117	67.7
1948-49	1,691	1,509	89.2	1,485	87.8	1,171	69.2
1949-50	1,780	1,634	91.8	1,502	84.4	1,256	70.6
1950-51	1,853	1,663	89.7	1,579	85.2	1,175	63.4
1951-52	1,905	1,656	86.9	1,472	77.3		
1952-53	1,898	1,703	89.7				
1953-54	1,890						

2. Schools Under the Vocational Education Act

Year of Enrol-ment in Grade IX	Number Enrolled in Grade IX	Retention in Grade X		Retention in Grade XI		Retention in Grade XII	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1944-45	1,134	663	58.5	568	50.1	446	39.3
1945-46	872	647	74.2	1,047	92.3	448	51.4
1946-47	942	708	75.2	610	64.8	385	[illegible]0.9
1947-48	913	678	74.3	643	70.4	410	44.9
1948-49	941	650	67.8	638	67.8	401	42.6
1949-50	864	630	72.9	550	63.7	330	38.2
1950-51	900	638	70.9	579	64.3	353	39.2
1951-52	817	563	68.9	529	64.7		
1952-53	836	617	73.8				
1953-54	783						

3. Schools Under the School Act

Year of Enrolment in Grade IX	Number Enrolled in Grade IX	Retention in Grade X		Retention in Grade XI		Retention in Grade XII	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1944-45	8,885	6,421	72.3	4,257	47.9	3,109	35.0
1945-46	8,779	6,303	71.8	4,239	48.3	2,889	32.9
1946-47	8,125	5,742	70.7	4,049	49.8	2,792	34.4
1947-48	8,072	5,617	69.6	3,826	47.4	2,731	33.8
1948-49	8,039	5,705	71.0	3,931	48.9	2,589	32.2
1949-50	8,043	5,802	72.1	3,905	48.6	2,500	31.1
1950-51	8,010	5,591	69.8	3,700	46.2	2,656	33.2
1951-52	8,211	5,473	66.7	3,904	47.5		
1952-53	7,766	5,691	73.3				
1953-54	8,037						

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

Table 26. (Data for Figure 32)

PERCENTAGE OF GRADE VI STUDENTS, MALE AND FEMALE, WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADE IX, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1950-51

Year of Enrolment in Grade VI	Percentage Who Later Enroll in Grade IX	
	Male	Female
1940-41	53	68
1941-42	54	67
1942-43	58	69
1943-44	57	68
1944-45	60	70
1945-46	61	70
1946-47	61	71
1947-48	63	73
1948-49	64	76
1949-50	62	73
1950-51	63	73

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education.

Table 27. (Data for Figure 33)

PERCENTAGE OF GRADE IX STUDENTS, MALE AND FEMALE, WHO LATER ENROLL IN GRADES X, XI, AND XII, SASKATCHEWAN, 1940-41 TO 1950-51

Year of Enrolment in Grade IX	Grade X		Grade XI		Grade XII	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1940-41	69	77	43	63	27	31
1942-43	68	79	48	63	43	44
1944-45	71	77	55	63	40	44
1946-47	70	77	52	61	39	41
1948-49	69	78	52	61	37	41
1950-51	68	78	50	59	39	39

SOURCE: *Annual Reports, Department of Education.*

Table 28. (Data for Figure 34)

PERCENTAGE OF YOUTH 15-19 YEARS OF AGE ATTENDING SCHOOL, BY SEX AND LOCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1951

Location	Male			Female		
		Attending School			Attending School	
	Total	Number	Per Cent	Total	Number	Per Cent
Farm	19,325	7,396	38.3	15,517	8,000	51.6
Rural Non-Farm	6,747	3,789	56.1	7,613	4,422	58.1
Urban	8,466	4,924	58.2	10,814	5,592	51.7

SOURCE: *Census of Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics.*

APPENDIX II

TECHNICAL AND COMPOSITE SCHOOLS IN SASKATCHEWAN AND USE OF DOMINION-PROVINCIAL VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS' ASSISTANCE AGREEMENT, 1945-1954

	Enrolment 1953-54	New School	Extension	Equipment	Dormitory
Three Major Cities—Technical Schools and Collegiates					
Balfour Technical (Regina)				x	
Moose Jaw Technical (Moose Jaw)			x		
Saskatoon Technical (Saskatoon)			x		
*Bedford Road Collegiate (Saskatoon)					
*Central Collegiate (Moose Jaw)					
*City Park Institute (Saskatoon)					
Scott Collegiate (Regina)		x			
*Nutana Collegiate (Saskatoon)					
Central Collegiate (Regina)					
School for the Deaf (Saskatoon)				x	
Other Schools under Secondary Education Act					
Estevan	207		x		
Humboldt	152		x		x
Kamsack	183	x			
Lloydminster	237	x			
Melfort	235	x			
North Battleford	264		x		
Prince Albert	662	x			
Swift Current	447	x			
Weyburn	299		x		
Yorkton	582		x		
Town or Village Schools under Larger Units Act					
Canora	169	x			
*Carlyle	47	x			
Foam Lake	236	x			
Kindersley	175		x		x
*Maple Creek		x			
Meadow Lake	198	x			
Moosomin	107	x			
Nipawin	225	x			
Rosetown	172		x		
Sturgis	258	x			x
Wilkie	117		x		
*Tisdale					
Eatonia	62				
Towns or Villages under School Act					
Assiniboia	127		x		
*Eastend	59	x			
Melville	200		x		
Shaunavon	111		x		
Wynyard	132	x			
Rosthern	75	x			
Marcelin	72				

*The Dominion Government did not reimburse the province in lieu of operating grants for these schools in 1953-54 because they were not recognized as composite schools.

APPENDIX III

ANNUAL RECEIPTS FOR ALL SCHOOLS UNDER THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1946-1953

Source	1946		1948		1951		1952		1953	
	$000's	%	$000's	%	$000's	%	$000's	%	$000's	%
Taxes	11,625	62.6	14,556	54.2	17,751	50.4	21,064	51.3	23,076	49.7
Government Grants	3,548	19.1	5,658	21.1	6,707	19.0	7,665	18.7	7,553	16.3
Fees	164	.9	192	.7	216	.6	232	.6	242	.5
Loans	1,667	9.0	5,148	19.2	9,302	26.4	10,071	24.5	11,378	24.5
Debentures	218	1.2	418	1.5	514	1.4	1,018	2.4	2,911	6.3
Other receipts	1,338	7.2	876	3.3	763	2.2	1,043	2.5	1,289	2.7
Total	18,560	100.0	26,848	100.0	35,253	100.0	41,093	100.0	46,449	100.0

SOURCE: *Annual Reports, Department of Education.*

APPENDIX IV

DETAILED CALCULATION OF GOVERNMENT GRANTS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1929-30 TO 1953-54*

Type of Grant	1929-30		1934-35		1939-40		1944-45		1949-50		1952-53		1953-54	
	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%
Operation—Total	2,215,476	95.2	1,400,262	97.3	2,290,528	96.5	2,189,797	75.5	2,487,244	43.5	3,243,762	39.1	3,258,270	38.2
Basic	1,881,733		1,146,697		2,005,473		1,857,073		2,045,209		2,862,517		2,869,476	
Continuation and high school	332,183		252,343		283,982		269,178		342,692		277,505		287,171	
Other	1,560		1,222		1,073		63,546		99,343		103,740		101,623	
Conveyance—Total	69,309	3.0	26,282	1.8	45,941	1.9	108,945	3.8	178,850	3.1	265,795	3.2	330,877	3.9
Consolidated schools	59,249		22,642		38,419		46,900		53,261		63,017		64,416	
Closed schools	10,060		3,640		7,522		62,045		125,589		202,778		266,461	
Statutory Building and Equipment Grants—Total	14,509	.6	5,196	.3	10,118	.4	11,195	.4	49,574	.9	27,939	.3	25,286	.3
Teacher's residence and first new schoolhouse	12,850		4,833		7,895		7,910		14,164		10,489		6,683	
Noon lunch, science, home economics, commercial, shopwork, audio visual	1,659		363		2,223		3,285		35,410		17,450		18,603	
Special Building and Equipment Grants—Total	—	—	—	—	1,990	.1	88,534	3.1	1,052,854	18.4	1,359,539	16.4	1,555,302	18.2
Repairs, bldg. and equip. (prov.)	—		—		1,990		88,534		657,329		1,228,681		1,550,547	
Dom.-Prov. equip. and bldg.	—		—		—		—		395,525		130,858		4,755	
Equalization	—	—	—	—	21,317	.9	374,796	12.9	1,936,201	33.8	3,405,965	41.0	3,353,865	39.3
Special	27,878	1.2	7,853	.6	4,242	.2	125,316	4.3	15,966	.3	609	.0	2,601	.1
Total for schools organized under School Act	2,327,172	100.0	1,439,593	100.0	2,374,136	100.0	2,898,579	100.0	5,720,689	100.0	8,303,607	100.0	8,526,202	100.0
Under Secondary Education Act	175,500		128,134		169,323		178,804		209,795		252,904		257,994	
Under Vocational Education Act	50,612		69,847		77,368		89,154		184,889		150,026		151,829	
Total	2,553,284		1,637,574		2,620,827		3,166,537		6,215,373		8,706,537		8,936,025	

SOURCE: *Annual Reports*, Department of Education, 1950-51 and 1953-54.   * Data are for year ending March 31.

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APPENDIX V

RECEIPTS AND OPERATING COSTS OF A HYPOTHETICAL SCHOOL UNIT IN THREE TYPES OF CIRCUMSTANCES

A hypothetical unit is assumed which contains 80 school districts (70 one-room rural school districts and 10 "urban" districts each of which has 4 high school rooms and 3 elemetnary rooms) and has a rural assessment of $7,000,000 and an urban assessment of $3,000,000.

* * *

1) Assuming that all districts are open and operating, the following are the receipts and operating costs of the unit:

Receipts			
Tax Receipts			
$7,000,000 rural assessment @ 15 mills	$ 105,000		
$3,000,000 urban assessment @ 19.5 mills	58,500		
		$ 163,500	
Operating Grants			
100 elementary rooms @ $600	$ 60,000		
40 high school rooms @ $800	32,000		
		$ 92,000	
			$ 255,500
Equalization Grants			
Revenues	$ 255,500		
Program Cost			
100 elementary rooms @ $3,040	$ 304,000		
40 high school rooms @ $3,240	129,600		
	$ 433,600		
Grant (433,600 — 255,500)			$178,100
Total Receipts			$ 433,600
Operating Costs			
70 one-room rural @ $3,000 (assumed)	$ 210,000		
30 elementary rooms (urban) @ $3,300 (assumed)	99,000		
40 high school rooms @ $3,600 (assumed)	144,000		
Total Operating Costs			$ 453,000

* * *

2) If 30 one-room rural districts were closed and conveying students, and 10 buses were required to convey the students, the following is the change in the grant structure, and the costs of the transition:

Receipts			
Tax Receipts		$ 163,500	
Operating Grants			
40 rural schools @ $600	$ 24,000		
30 elementary rooms (urban) @ $600	18,000		
40 high school rooms @ $800	32,000		
30 conveying districts @ $600	18,000		
		$ 92,000	
			$ 255,500

Equalization Grants		
Revenues	$ 255,500	
Program Cost		
70 elementary rooms @ $3,040	212,800	
40 high school rooms @ $3,240	129,600	
30 conveying districts @ $1,650	49,500	
	$ 391,900	
Grant (391,900 — 255,500)		$ 136,400
Total Receipts		$ 391,900

Operating Costs

Rooms		
40 one-room rural @ $3,000 (assumed)	$ 120,000	
30 elementary room (urban) @ 3,300	99,000	
40 high school rooms @ $3,600	144,000	
		$ 363,000
Conveying		
Capital: 10 buses @ $5,000	$ 50,000	
Less capital grant	12,500	
	$ 37,500	
Depreciated @ 10% per annum		3,750
Operation (including driver @ $1,800) @ $3,000 per unit	$ 30,000	
Less conveyance grant	9,000	
		21,000
Total Operating Costs		$ 387,750

* * *

3) In actual practice, however, it is unlikely that 30 one-room rural schools can be closed without other accommodations being provided. Generally, there is a saving of one teacher for every two schools closed. To account for this, it is assumed that 15 "urban" elementary roms are added to accommodate the students from the 30 closed districts. The operating and equalization grants are thus altered, and the following would be the grant structure and the costs of the transition.

Receipts

Tax Receipts		$ 163,500	
Operating Grants			
40 rural schools @ $600	$ 24,000		
45 elementary room (urban) @ $600	27,000		
40 high school rooms @ $800	32,000		
30 conveying districts @ $600	18,000		
		$ 101,000	
			$ 264,500
Equalization Grants			
Revenues	$ 264,500		
Program Cost			
85 elementary rooms @ $3,040	$ 258,400		
40 high school rooms @ $3,240	129,600		
30 conveying districts @ $1,650	49,500		
	$ 437,500		
Grant (437,500 — 264,500)			$ 173,000
Total Receipts			$ 437,500

Operating Costs

Rooms			
40 one-room rural @ $3,000 (assumed)	$ 120,000		
45 elementary rooms (urban) @ $3,300 (assumed)	148,500		
40 high school rooms @ $3,600 (assumed)	144,000		
			$ 412,500
Conveying			
Capital: 10 buses @ $5,000	$ 50,000		
Less capital grant	12,500		
	$ 37,500		
Depreciated @ 10% per annum		$ 3,750	
Operation (including driver @ $1,800) @ $3,000 per unit	$ 30,000		
Less conveyance grant	9,000		
		21,000	
			24,750
Capital cost of replacing rooms			
Assuming one-room rural schools are moved and re-established @ $2,000 each	$ 30,000		
Depreciated @ 5% per annum			1,500
Total Operating Costs			$ 438,750

* * *

The following are the receipts (taxes, operating and equalization grants) for the three examples:

	Taxes $	Operating Grants $	Equalization Grants $	Total $
1) No schools closed	163,500	92,000	178,100	433,600
2) 30 closed	163,500	92,000	136,400	391,900
3) 30 closed and 15 new rooms opened	163,500	101,000	173,000	437,500

Operating and equalization grants in the third example exceed those in No. 2 because of the duplication. The unit draws grants on behalf of 30 conveying districts and also receives grants for 15 rooms which have been opened in the urban areas.

The following are the costs of operating in these three examples:

	Operating $	Conveying $	Total $
1) No schools closed	453,000	–	453,000
2) 30 schools closed	363,000	24,750	387,750
3) 30 closed and 15 new rooms opened	412,500	26,250	438,750

The effects in summary are:

1) Costs exceed taxes and grants by $19,400
2) Taxes and grants exceed costs $4,150
3) Costs exceed taxes and grants by $1,250

There are other circumstances which can alter even this hypothetical calculation. One such circumstance is the need for bombardiers for winter use. In example No. 2 where no schools are added, if 10 bombardiers at $4,000 each were added, the extra capital cost would be $30,000 (25 per cent capital grant deducted). If operational costs of bombardiers were comparable to bus costs and depreciation were the same, the per annum cost would be $3,000.

In example No. 3 the addition of a similar expenditure for bombardiers plus the costs of either moving or building the extra "urban" accommodation would correspondingly nullify the apparent gain. If 15 one-room rural schools were moved at a cost of $2,000 per school, and depreciated at 5 per cent per annum, the per annum cost of moving the schools would be $1,500.

Summary

As the number of schools that are closed and conveyed increases, the equalization grant decreases.

If closed schools are replaced by central operating schools, both operating and equalization grants increase. The greater the duplication, the greater the grants.

The actual cost of conveyance is relative to the numbers of districts which can be carried per operating vehicle. If three districts can be accommodated in one vehicle, the per annum cost of transportation will be slightly less than the cost of operating the one rural school. Any duplication of vehicles would slightly reduce the advantage.

If extra central facilities are required at the rate of one room for every two rooms closed, and transportation cost is as above, the costs of operation and transportation are less expensive than operation of a full complement of one-room schools. Duplication of vehicles (bombardiers) and capital costs of central facilities would reduce the advantage, but the centralized system would still have a net advantage over the use of all the rural schools.

APPENDIX VI

QUESTIONNAIRES SENT TO UNIT SECRETARIES, UNIT SUPERINTENDENTS AND LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT BOARDS

Questionnaire for Unit Secretaries and Unit Boards

Administrative Organization

1. Number of school board members ....
2. School board meetings: (a) Place ....
   (b) Frequency ....
3. Number and nature of special committees (e.g., building committee, etc.)
   ....
4. Relationship of special committees to board as a whole (e.g., powers)
   ....
5. How many board members are also members of municipal council? ....
6. How adequate is the working relationship between the unit board and the school superintendent?
   ....

Finances

1. Total revenue of larger unit (1952) ....
   (a) Revenue from tax levies ....
   (b) Revenue from grants ....
   (c) Other revenues (total) ....
2. Total expenditures of larger unit (1952) ....
   (a) Administration ....
   (b) Instruction ....
   (c) Plant operation and maintenance ....
   (d) Transportation ....
   (e) High school allowances ....
   (f) Other ....
3. To what extent do ratepayers generally consider that educational costs have increased due to the establishment of the larger unit?
   (a) To a very great extent ....
   (b) To a fairly great extent ....
   (c) Somewhat ....
   (d) Not at all ....
   Comment ....
4. To what extent do ratepayers consider that educational costs have increased, relative to services rendered, since the inception of the larger unit?
   (a) To a very great extent ....
   (b) To a fairly great extent ....
   (c) Somewhat ....
   (d) Not at all ....
   Comment ....
5. Ratepayers consider taxes for educational purposes are too high in relation to taxes for public works.
   (a) This is generally true ....
   (b) This is not true ....
6. In view of conditions in your unit (considering further centralization, increased transportation, need for more accommodation), do you consider educational costs will continue to increase in the future?
   Yes .... No ....
   Approximately how many years do you consider increases will continue?
   ....

7. (a) How many years experience has your unit board had with a program of centralizaton? ....
(b) If decentralization were possible (assuming a minimum of students, and that sufficient teachers and rural schools were available) and offered education at the same cost, would ratepayers want to go back to the small unit system?

Check off
Mostly (75%) ....
Partly (30%-75%) ....
Few (up to 30%) ....
None at all ....
Comment ....

8. Assuming our present education system (centralization and transportation) became too costly in a period of agricultural economic decline, how would the unit board reduce costs:

Number the following 1 to 5 in order of preference
(a) Reducing teacher salaries ....
(b) Discontinuing transportation and re-opening rural one-room schools ....
(c) Discontinuing payment of high school allowances ....
(d) Reduce maintenance and upkeep costs by returning responsibility for same to local boards ....
(e) Other ....
Comment ....

9. To what extent does your unit board consider it would be advantageous to accumulate a cash reserve fund?
(a) To a very great extent ....
(b) To a fairly great extent ....
(c) Somewhat ....
(d) Not at all ....

10. To what extent has your unit board attempted to build up a cash reserve?
(a) To a very great extent ....
(b) To a fairly great extent ....
(c) Somewhat ....
(d) Not at all ....
(e) If the board is building up a cash reserve, how long has such a plan been in existence ....

11. (a) Do you consider the provincial government pays an adequate share of educational costs?
Yes .... No ....
Qualify ....
(b) What proportion of costs is currently paid by the provincial government?
....
(c) What proportion do you consider should be paid by provincial government?
....

12. Do you consider the federal government has any financial responsibility for public and high school education?
Yes .... No ....
If "Yes" specify the desirable relationship between the unit, provincial government and federal government.
....

13. To what extent do you feel that tax requisitioning in rural and urban areas is on an equitable basis?
(a) To a very great extent ....
(b) To a fairly great extent ....
(c) Somewhat ....
(d) Not at all ....
Comment ....

14. It has been suggested in some units that pressure is being exerted on unit boards for centralization and use of buses before the board considers it feasible. To what extent is this a problem in your unit?
    (a) To a very great extent ....
    (b) To a fairly great extent ....
    (c) Somewhat ....
    (d) Not at all ....
    Comment ....

15. What advantages or disadvantages does your board see in establishing a completely rural centralization at some central point in the rural area as opposed to locating it in a village or town.
    Advantages ....
    Disadvantages ....

Parent Participation

1. Number of schools in unit (open) ....
2. Number of school boards **actively assisting** in administration of local school ....
3. Unit boards handle financial matters with the local boards in various methods. Indicate in the following table the number of districts which receive money for various purposes, and the **average** amounts involved.

	Rural	Village	Town
Number of districts receiving money for local purposes			
Average amounts paid			

4. List the purposes for which your unit makes finances available to the local boards.
....

5. If there is any range in the amounts paid to various local school districts, list the determining factors considered in establishing the range.
....

6. Number of annual ratepayer meetings (local) held in the unit in 1952 ....
7. What percentage of ratepayers attended annual meetings during the past eight years?

	0-9%	10-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%
1952					
1951					
1950					
1949					
1948					
1947					
1946					
1945					

8. What percentage of ratepayers attended sub-unit annual meetings during the past eight years?

	0-9%	10-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%
1952					
1951					
1950					
1949					
1948					
1947					
1946					
1945					

9. The individuals comprising the present unit board have held office for the period of time indicated below:

	Chairman	Trustee Sub-unit 1	Sub-unit 2	Sub-unit 3	Sub-unit 4	Sub-unit 5	Sub-unit 6
Current term							
Two terms							
Three terms							
Four terms							
Five terms							

10. The members of the present unit board were elected by acclamation:

	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947	1946	1945
Sub-unit 1								
Sub-unit 2								
Sub-unit 3								
Sub-unit 4								
Sub-unit 5								
Sub-unit 6								

11. When local school boards lose interest in school affairs and refuse to accept full responsibilities as delegated to them under the School Act it is because:

Number the following 1 to 5 in order of preference

(a) They have no responsibility for spending ....
(b) They would rather refrain from assisting and be in a position to criticize ....
(c) They are not encouraged by the unit board to accept their proper responsibilities for fear they make extravagant expenditures and upset the financial planning of the unit board ....
(d) The ratepayers to whom they are responsible are not co-operative at the local level due to the control by the unit board ....
(e) They feel that the unit board gets paid for administering school affairs and should be left to do the complete job ....

12. Your unit board members spend considerable time and effort in maintaining and developing interest of the local boards and ratepayers in local and unit affairs:

Check

(a) Very great effort ....
(b) Fairly great effort ....
(c) Some effort ....
(d) No effort at all ....

Comment ....

13. In your opinion, how much ratepayer interest is shown throughout the unit for the teacher's welfare (housing, social life, general welfare):

	Approximate Number of Districts
(a) Very great interest	....
(b) Fair amount of interest	....
(c) Some interest	....
(d) No interest at all	....

14. In your opinion how much interest do parents show regarding the continuation of education into:

	High School	Vocational School	University
(a) Very great interest			
(b) Fairly good interest			
(c) Some interest			
(d) No interest			
(e) Opposition			

Comment ....

Evaluation of Administrative Organization

1. What in your opinion is the present attitude of the ratepayers to the larger unit of administration? (Indicate the number of districts under each category).

(a) Complete and enthusiastic agreement ....
(b) Complacent acceptance ....
(c) Acceptance, with reservations ....
(d) Mild opposition ....
(e) Severe opposition ....

2. To what extent has the unit board made a strong attempt to create a good working relationship with the municipal councils regarding:

	Very great extent	Great extent	Somewhat	Not at all
(a) Explanation of tax requirements				
(b) Explanation of bus route requirements				
(c) Establishment of new schools				
(d) Common meetings to discuss problems of mutual interest				

3. To what extent, in your opinion, have the municipal councils made a strong attempt to co-operate with the school board regarding:

	Very great extent	Great extent	Somewhat	Not at all
(a) Understanding of tax requirements				
(b) Planning of bus routes				
(c) Providing adequate bus routes				
(d) Common meetings to discuss problems of mutual interest				

4. (a) Do you consider the present larger units are of the most suitable size?

Yes .... No ....

Comment ....

(b) Do you consider the boundaries of larger units are as satisfactory as possible?

Yes .... No ....

Comment ....

(c) Do you consider the present larger units are of the most suitable dimensions?

Yes .... No ....

Comment ....

The Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life has assumed that the development of a stable and balanced rural economy will require strong and vital local government. In this regard the Commission is examining the field of local government as it pertains to ALL administrative units serving a local population.

The Commission assumes that strong local government will: command the attention and devotion of capable local leaders and so persuade them to accept responsible offices; utilize available financial resources from whatever source with maximum efficiency; provide for effective local servicing through sound administration; and merit the confidence and financial support of Provincial and Federal Governments.

5. Various possibilities exist which might assist in the fulfilling of the objectives outlined above.

(i) The suggestion has been advanced to the Commission that rural municipalities be reorganized and enlarged to give greater effectiveness to local government. In considering reorganization the suggestion has been made that the boundaries of enlarged municipal units should coincide with boundaries of larger school units. The school boards and municipal councils would continue to administer their respective affairs as at present, but would be dealing with the same people and geographic areas.

(a) To what extent do you consider this proposal would meet with approval of the following:

	Very great extent	Great extent	Somewhat	Not at all
Ratepayers				
Unit Board				
R.M. Councils				
School Secretary				
School Superintendent				

Comment

(b) List the criteria which you would consider in establishing larger unit boundaries for educational, municipal and health services.

(ii) Another possibility for revision of the local government system is the establishment of a county system. This would imply establishment of a single geographic unit for school and municipal purposes, with the county boundary coinciding with the boundaries of larger school units. Under this arrangement various alternatives for administrative organization might exist each of which would permit a greater degree of integration in local government than is the case at present.

Which of the following 3 alternatives would appear to be most acceptable? (Check one answer only.)

(a) Election of councillors by divisions or sub-units to form a county council, which would be divided into committees, e.g., school, public works, and health. Appointment of a county secretary who would be secretary of all committees and secretary of the county council.

(b) Election of a slate of officers as above. Instead of one county secretary the appointment of a county manager, and a secretary for each of the education and public works committees. The county manager would be charged with the responsibility of administering all programs and policies as decided upon by the council, and would be assisted in his administration by the committee secretaries.

(c) Election of a slate of councillors who would be elected at large rather than by divisions; the county council to be divided into committees as suggested in (a) above.

(d) Election by division of a county council of five or seven representatives which would not be divided into committees, but would be the sole governing body for all purposes. This council would establish all policy and would delegate the responsibility for overall administration to the county manager and his assistants as noted in (b) above.

(e) Election at large of a county council of five or seven representatives which would not be divided into committees, but would be the sole governing body for all purposes. This council would establish all policy and would delegate the responsibility for overall administration to the county manager and his assistants as noted in (b) above.

Comment

Questionnaire for School Superintendents

1. Name of school unit
2. Location of administrative center
3. Characteristics of larger unit:
   (a) Year in which larger unit was established
   (b) Municipalities involved (rural and urban)

Name	No.

For purposes of completing the following table it is suggested that you employ the following definitions of types of schools:

ONE-ROOM RURAL. A rural school which provides elementary training, and which has some high school students enrolled who work from correspondence courses and/or receive instruction.

ELEMENTARY. Schools giving only elementary training, Grades 1-8 inclusive.

CONTINUATION. Schools providing elementary training, and a continuation room or rooms for Grades VII and VIII, or Grade VIII, and all or part of the high school program.

HIGH SCHOOL. Schools which provide elementary and high school training; or elementary, continuation and high school. The type of school referred to is that which teaches all grades from Grade I to Grade XII.

COMPOSITE. A school which satisfies the definition of a high school, but in addition provides some vocational training.

(c) Classification of schools in the larger unit.

	Rural (including hamlets)						
	One-room rural	Elementary	Continuation	High school	Consolidated	Separate	Gov't aided
No. in superintendency							
No. of schools in unit in 1953-54							
No. of schools at inception of unit							
No. of schools which have been closed since inception of unit							
No. of schools which have been re-opened							
No. of schools anticipated closing in next 5 yrs							
No. of new schools built							
No. of school bldgs. enlarged by:							
Converting existing space into classrooms							
Building new additions to							
Moving in 1-room schools							

	Urban (villages and towns under 2,000 pop.)						
	Elementary	Continuation	High school	Consolidated	Composite	Separate	Gov't aided
No. in superintendency							
No. of schools in unit in 1953-54							
No. of schools at inception of unit							
No. of schools which have been closed since inception of unit							
No. of schools which have been re-opened							
No. of schools anticipated closing in next 5 yrs							
No. of new schools built							
No. of school bldgs. enlarged by:							
Converting existing space into classrooms							
Building new additions to							
Moving in 1-room schools							

(d) Number of larger attendance areas in the unit ....
(An area comprising a group of contiguous school districts in which one school is operating to serve all the pupils in the area.)

(e) Number of students getting high school allowance

(i) Within unit (1951-52) .... (1952-53) ....

(ii) Outside unit (1951-52) .... (1952-53) ....

(f) Number of students taking high school by correspondence (1952-1953)

Grade IX: Type A .... Type B ....

Grade X: Type A .... Type B ....

4. Teacher Supply (Complete as far back as possible)

	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953
Study supervisors									
Permit teachers (incl. Second Class)									
First Class (Interim and Permanent)									
Superior or Jr. High School (Interim and Permanent)									
High School or equivalent certificate									

Parent Participation

1. Number of schools in unit (open) ....
2. Number of local school boards **actively assisting** in administration of local school ....
3. When local school boards lose interest in school affairs and refuse to accept full responsibilities as delegated to them under the School Act it is because:
   Number the following 1 to 5 in order of preference
   (a) They have no responsibility for spending ....
   (b) They would rather refrain from assisting and be in a position to criticize ....
   (c) They are not encouraged by the unit board to accept their proper responsibilities for fear they make extravagant expenditures and upset the financial planning of the unit board ....
   (d) The ratepayers to whom they are responsible are not co-operative at the local level due to the control by the unit board ....
   (e) They feel that the unit board gets paid for administering school affairs and should be left to do the complete job ....
4. Your unit board members spend considerable time and effort in maintaining and developing interest of the local boards and ratepayers in local and unit affairs:
   Check
   (a) Very great effort ....
   (b) Fairly great effort ....
   (c) Some effort ....
   (d) No effort at all ....
   Comment ....
5. In your opinion, how much ratepayer interest is shown throughout the unit for the teacher's welfare (housing, social life, general welfare):

	Approximate Number of Districts
(a) Very great interest	....
(b) Fair amount of interest	....
(c) Some interest	....
(d) No interest at all	....

   Comment ....
6. In your opinion, how much ratepayer interest is shown in the curriculum being offered:
   (a) Very great interest ....
   (b) Fair amount of interest ....
   (c) Some interest ....
   (d) No interest at all ....
   Comment ....

7. In your opinion, how much do ratepayers consider the curriculum is at fault in causing students to want to discontinue school at the completion of elementary training:
   (a) Very great extent ....
   (b) Fairly great extent ....
   (c) Some extent ....
   (d) None at all ....
   Comment ....

8. To what extent do you consider the curriculum is a major deterrent to students' completing high school:
   (a) Very great extent ....
   (b) Fairly great extent ....
   (c) Some extent ....
   (d) None at all ....
   Comment ....

9. In your opinion how much interest do parents show regarding the continuation of education into:

	High School	Vocational School	University
(a) Very great interest			
(b) Fairly good interest			
(c) Some interest			
(d) No interest			
(e) Opposition			

   Comment ....

10. How many Home and School Associations in your unit? ....

11. To what extent are home and school associations effective in your unit as a means of maintaining an active parent interest in school affairs:
   (a) To a very great extent ....
   (b) To a fairly great extent ....
   (c) Somewhat ....
   (d) Not at all ....
   Comment ....

12. To what extent do you consider that a program of adult education is desirable to increase awareness of educational affairs:
   (a) To a very great extent ....
   (b) To a fairly great extent ....
   (c) Somewhat ....
   (d) Not at all ....
   Comment ....

High School "Drop-outs"

1. What percentage (approximate) of students who complete Grade VIII do not enroll in Grade IX ....

2. What percentage (approximate) of students who enroll in high school do not obtain:
   Grade X ....
   Grade XI ....
   Grade XII ....

3. There is a noted difference between ethnic groups regarding interest in completion of high school education at least.
   Yes .... No ....
   Qualify ....

4. The social and economic status of a family is the primary determinant that a student will:
   (a) complete high schooling Yes .... No ....
   (b) go on to take higher education Yes .... No ....
   Qualify ....

5. Lack of academic ability is the major reason for drop-outs.
   Yes .... No ....
   Qualify ....

6. Students do not enroll in high school or tend to drop out of high school for the following reasons:

   Number 1 to 8 in order of preference

   (a) Courses offered are purely academic and as such do not appeal ....
   (b) Labour force of short supply ....
   (c) The speed of modern living has created a desire by young people to be moving and consequently they do not want to sit in school and study ....
   (d) Necessity for going away from home to school has created too great a financial burden for some families to afford high schooling for all members of the family ....
   (e) Parents do not fully recognize the possibilities in education and consequently do not exert sufficient influence to keep their children at school ....
   (f) Students who have to take high schooling by use of correspondence courses become discouraged and leave school ....
   (g) Necessity for farm youth to be retained on the farm to supply farm labour ....
   (h) High school facilities and programs have tended to lag behind public school programs and facilities ....

7. To what extent do you consider that vocational guidance, if stressed in high school, would be an effective deterrent to dropping out:
   (a) To a very great extent ....
   (b) To a fairly great extent ....
   (c) To some extent ....
   (d) Not at all ....
   Comment ....

8. Vocational guidance offered in this unit is done in the following methods:
   (a) High school principals give guidance counselling to:
      All students ....
      Some students ....
      Some students only when a suitable opportunity arises ....

(b) High school principals give vocational guidance only when asked by students. (Check the table to indicate the percentage of the principal's time which you consider is requested for guidance counselling.)

	0-10%	11-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%
Girls					
Boys					

(c) Correspondence course students under supervision of teachers receive vocational guidance counselling:

To a very great extent ....
To a great extent ....
To a limited extent ....
Not at all ....

(d) The unit employs a guidance officer who visits various high schools counselling high school students.

Yes .... No ....

(e) The school superintendent does the only vocational guidance work which is done in the unit.

Yes .... No ....

(f) If vocational guidance is lacking in your unit what suggestions do you offer as methods of providing the service?

....

....

9. To what extent does vocational immaturity make vocational training at high school level a questionable practice:

(a) To a very great extent ....
(b) To a fairly great extent ....
(c) Somewhat ....
(d) None at all ....

10. What practical possibilities exist for vocational training for rural pupils under Saskatchewan conditions:

(a) In high school? ....
(b) At selected centers after completing high school?

....

Evaluation of Administrative Organizations

1. What in your opinion is the present attitude of the ratepayers to the larger unit of administration? (Indicate the number of districts under each category).

(a) Complete and enthusiastic agreement ....
(b) Complacent acceptance ....
(c) Acceptance, with reservation ....
(d) Mild opposition ....
(e) Severe opposition ....

2. To what extent has the unit board made a strong attempt to create a good working relationship with the municipal councils regarding:

	Very great extent	Great extent	Somewhat	Not at all
(a) Explanation of tax requirements				
(b) Explanation of bus route requirements				
(c) Establishment of new schools				
(d) Common meetings to discuss problems of mutual interest				

3. To what extent, in your opinion have the municipal councils made a strong attempt to co-operate with the school board regarding:

	Very great extent	Great extent	Somewhat	Not at all
(a) Understanding of tax requirements				
(b) Planning of bus routes				
(c) Providing adequate bus routes				
(d) Common meetings to discuss problems of mutual interest				

4. (a) Do you consider the present larger units are of the most suitable size?
Yes .... No ....

Comment ....

(b) Do you consider the boundaries of larger units are as satisfactory as possible?
Yes .... No ....

Comment ....

(c) Do you consider the present larger units are of the most suitable dimensions?
Yes .... No ....

Comment ....

The Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life has assumed that the development of a stable and balanced rural economy will require strong and vital local government. In this regard the Commission is examining the field of local government as it pertains to ALL administrative units serving a local population.

The Commission assumes that strong local government will: command the attention and devotion of capable local leaders and so persuade them to accept responsible offices; utilize available financial resources from whatever source with maximum efficiency; provide for effective local servicing through sound administration; and merit the confidence and financial support of Provincial and Federal Governments.

5. Various possibilities exist which might assist in the fulfilling of the objectives outlined above.

(i) The suggestion has been advanced to the Commission that rural municipalities be reorganized and enlarged to give greater effectiveness to local government. In considering reorganization the suggestion has been made that the boundaries of enlarged municipal units should coincide with boundaries of larger school units. The school boards and municipal councils would continue to administer their respective affairs as at present, but would be dealing with the same people and geographic areas.

(a) To what extent do you consider this proposal would meet with approval of the following:

	Very great extent	Great extent	Somewhat	Not at all
Ratepayers				
Unit Board				
R.M. Councils				
School Secretary				
School Superintendent				

Comment ....

(b) List the criteria which you would consider in establishing larger unit boundaries for educational, municipal and health services.

....

....

(ii) Another possibility for revision of the local government system is the establishment of a county system. This would imply establishment of a single geographic unit for school and municipal purposes, with the county boundary coinciding with the boundaries of larger school units. Under this arrangement various alternatives for administrative organization might exist each of which would permit a greater degree of integration in local government than is the case at present.

Which of the following 5 alternatives would appear to be most acceptable? (Check one answer only.)

(a) Election of councillors by divisions or sub-units to form a county council, which would be divided into committees, e.g., school, public works, and health. Appointment of a county secretary who would be secretary of all committees and secretary of the county council.

(b) Election of a slate of officers as above. Instead of one county secretary the appointment of a county manager, and a secretary for each of the education and public works committees. The county manager would be charged with the responsibility of administering all programs and policies as decided upon by the council, and would be assisted in his administration by the committee secretaries.

(c) Election of a slate of councillors who would be elected at large rather than by divisions; the county council to be divided into committees as suggested in (a) above.

(d) Election by division of a county council of five or seven representatives which would not be divided into committees, but would be the sole governing body for all purposes. This council would establish all policy and would delegate the responsibility for overall administration to the county manager and his assistants as noted in (b) above.

(e) Election at large of a county council of five or seven representatives which would not be divided into committees, but would be the sole governing body for all purposes. This council would establish all policy and would delegate the responsibility for overall administration to the county manager and his assistants as noted in (b) above.

Comment ....

....

Co-ordination

1. Various other individuals work in the rural communities doing educational work of one kind or another.

   To what extent are you asked into co-ordinative planning by each of the following:

	(a) To a very large extent	(b) To a fairly great extent	(c) Somewhat	(d) Not at all
Dept. of Education Adult Ed. Div.				
Dept. of Agriculture				
Dept. of Health				
Dept. of Co-operation				
Libraries				
Dept. of Extension, University, of Saskatchewan				
Wheat Pool Fieldman				
R.C.M.P.				
Other				

Comment ....

2. To what extent do you consider your work would be facilitated by closer liaison with each of the following:

	(a) To a very great extent	(b) To a fairly great extent	(c) Somewhat	(d) Not at all
Dept. of Education Adult Ed. Div.				
Department of Agriculture				
Dept. of Co-operation				
Libraries				
Dept. of Extension, University of Saskatchewan				
Wheat Pool Fieldman				
R.C.M.P.				
Other				

Comment ....

3. To what extent are the facilities of unit libraries or school libraries made available to adults:
(a) To a very great extent ....
(b) To a fairly great extent ....
(c) Somewhat ....
(d) Not at all ....
Comment ....

4. To what extent do you consider it is feasible to increase the facilities of unit libraries to the extent that they might serve as a sort of regional library for the public.
(a) To a very great extent ....
(b) To a fairly great extent ....
(c) Somewhat ....
(d) Not at all ....

Advantages ....

Disadvantages ....

Questionnaire for Local School District Boards

Persons answering questionnaire:
Secretary (yes) ....
Trustees (Number) ....

Present Situation

1. Name of School .... No. of School ....
2. Postal Address ....
3. Distance of school from town ....
4. Name and number of R.M. in which school is located
(Name) .... (Number) ....
5. Name of unit .... Number of unit ....
6. (a) Is your local school open? Yes .... No ....
(b) Do you anticipate it will be closed in the near future ....
Why? ....
7. If your local school is not open, is the school board still operating?
Yes .... No ....
8. (a) Characteristics of School Board

			Children at School		No. of Years on Board	
	Age	Sex	Yes or No		Total	Since Larger Unit
Secretary						
Chairman						
Trustee						
Trustee						

(b) Please check off in the appropriate columns the years in which present trustees have been elected by acclamation:

	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947	1946	1945
Chairman									
Trustee									
Trustee									

9. If the local school is open how many students are at present enrolled ....
10. If school is closed, when was it closed ....
11. What year did your district come into the larger unit ....
12. What is or was the attitude of the ratepayers in your district towards the larger unit?

	When formed	Now
(a) Completely and enthusiastically in favour		
(b) In favour of it, with some reservations		
(c) Mildly opposed to it		
(d) Severely opposed		

Comment ....

13. How many annual meetings have been held in your district since it was incorporated in the larger unit ....

14. (a) If your school is closed what arrangements are made for student transportation? ....

(b) What time does the first child from your district get on the bus in the morning? .... a.m., and what time does the last child get on .... am., and what are the earliest and latest times that children from your district get off the bus after school .... p.m. .... p.m.

(c) Do ratepayers consider the transportation provided is satisfactory?

Yes .... No ....

Comment ....

Administration

1. How many years has your district been represented by a delegate at the sub-unit elections ....

2. How many members of your board have attended sub-unit annual meetings each year since the unit was established?

1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947	1946	1945	1944

3. What percentage of ratepayers in your district have attended sub-unit annual meetings since the district was included in a larger unit of administration.

	0-4%	5-9%	10-14%	15-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%
1953							
1952							
1951							
1950							
1949							
1948							
1947							
1946							
1945							

4. (a) What percentage of ratepayers have attended local annual meetings during the past 8 years.

	0-4%	5-9%	10-14%	15-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%
1953							
1952							
1951							
1950							
1949							
1948							
1947							
1946							
1945							

(b) What is your opinion regarding the present amount of ratepayer participation in school business. (Please check one).

Very satisfactory
Fairly satisfactory
Not satisfactory at all

5. Unit trustees are at present elected from delegates at the sub-unit level, rather than being elected directly by the ratepayers.

(a) What is the attitude of your board members towards this system?

A very good system
Fairly good system
A poor system

(b) What changes, if any, would you like to have made in the present system of election?

6. The Commission through its community forums and community hearings, was advised that some local school boards are showing strong interest in administration of the local school, while others do not take enough responsibility.

(a) What responsibility does your board have for spending unit finances?

(b) To what extent can your board make expenditures without getting the consent of the unit board?

(c) Do the ratepayers support you, and take any interest in school affairs?

(d) What amount of responsibility does your local board have regarding selecting or retaining teachers?

7. (a) How adequate is the working relationship between your board and the unit officials?

	Unit office	Sub-unit trustee
Very good		
Good		
Fair		
Poor		

(b) If the relationship is not considered satisfactory, what recommendations do you make for improvement?

8. (a) How satisfactory are the relations in general between your local school board and the school superintendent?
   - Very satisfactory
   - Fairly satisfactory
   - Fairly unsatisfactory
   - Very unsatisfactory

Comment

(b) What problems or issues are there which arise from time to time in connection with which you feel the school superintendent ought to consult more closely with the local district board than he does at present? (Write out in detail).

9. Some rural schools have been closed for various reasons and students are being transported to a central point. In districts where this has been the case the ratepayers have representation on the unit board but they do not have representation on the board of the school which the children attend. It has been suggested to the Commission that it would be advisable to dissolve the "closed school" districts and boards and enlarge the district of the operating school to include them. In this case the board of such an enlarged school district would be elected from the complete district and would have proportionately more delegates to the sub-unit meeting.

(a) To what extent do you consider the above outlined proposal would be advantageous?
   - To a very great extent
   - To a fairly great extent
   - Somewhat
   - Not at all

(b) What are your reasons for this decision?

(c) If your school is closed, or if assumed it is going to be closed, what in your opinion should be done with the school building.
   - (i) Should be left where it is for use as a community center
   - (ii) Should be retained since it may be required to re-open
   - (iii) Should be sold
   - (iv) Should be moved, if possible, to be used in a program of centralization
   - (v) Should be moved if necessary to assist in a centralization program, but retained in such a condition that it may be moved back

(d) Suppose enough students became available to merit re-opening of a rural school, but in the meantime adequate educational and transportation facilities had been made available elsewhere, what would be the attitude of your board towards re-opening the closed school?

10. Assuming that it becomes necessary to centralize more educational facilities and assuming that roads and bus facilities are adequate; do you consider that all centralization should be done in the nearest convenient town or village?
Yes No
Advantages of town or village centralization

Disadvantages of town or village centralization

11. If your school district has been involved in a program of centralization, to what extent has the municipal council in your area co-operated with the unit board by providing satisfactory roads for bus routes.
This has not become a problem in this area
To a very great extent
To a fairly great extent
Somewhat
Not at all
Comment

12. In many cases, bus routes cross municipal boundaries. To what extent does the lack of co-operation between neighbouring municipalities hinder the development of satisfactory bus routes in your area.
To a very great extent
To a fairly great extent
Somewhat
Not at all
Comment

13. From your experience in your school district do you consider that a greater percentage of the students who have completed Grade VIII are going through high school now than was the case before the unit came in?
Yes No
What effect has the larger unit had, which prompts you to give the above answer.

Finance

1. To what extent do you as a school board consider that educational costs have increased **due to the establishment of the larger unit.**
To a very great extent
To a fairly great extent
Somewhat
Not at all

2. To what extent do you feel that ratepayers in general consider that educational costs have increased **due to establishment of the larger unit.**
To a very great extent
To a fairly great extent
Somewhat
Not at all

3. To what extent do you consider that educational services have been improved **due to the influence of the larger unit**
To a very great extent
To a fairly great extent
Somewhat
Not at all
Comment

4. Due to shortage of pupils and teachers many rural schools have been closed and other arrangements have been made for education of the children. These new arrangements have made it necessary to establish transportation systems, construct new buildings and pay high school allowances. These costs have come about at a time when all costs have been increasing. At the same time teacher salaries have been increasing. Considering the costs involved, to what extent do you consider that educational costs are out of line with educational services now available to farm people.
To a very great extent
To a fairly great extent
Somewhat
Not at all

5. There has been considerable interest shown by parents regarding the possibility of adding more vocational subjects to the present curriculum. Such curriculum additions would further increase the cost of education, particularly when first added. Considering the costs, to what extent do you feel that the ratepayers in your district are willing to pay for further improvement in educational services.

   To a very great extent ....

   To a fairly great extent ....

   Somewhat ....

   Not at all ....

   Comment: (Please qualify your answer)

   ....

6. What is the opinion of ratepayers in your district regarding the proportion of your taxes which go for educational purposes compared to the proportion which go for public works.
   Educational taxes are too high compared with taxes for public works ....
   Educational taxes are too low compared with taxes for public works ....
   The proportion to each is just about right ....

7. If teachers were available to staff all the rural schools, and the unit board made the same amount of money available to the local school board as is now being spent on your school do you consider that the local board could provide the same quality of service for students as is now being offered by the unit board.
   Yes .... No ....
   Please explain why you answer either Yes or No.

   ....

General Reorganization

1. If your district board was given the opportunity in recommending changes in the administration by larger units, what particular recommendations would you make?

   ....

2. Saskatchewan farms appear to be getting larger, more farm people seem to be moving off the farm. Coupled with these changes in the rural population, it appears that teachers are going to be scarce for some time to come. In view of these considerations what form do you think the rural education system will take in ten years' time.

   ....

3. It appears that rural municipalities are having difficulties providing the kind of roads required for modern transportation. In view of your experience with the larger units of school administration do you consider there is any merit in considering larger municipal units somewhat like larger school units.

   Yes .... No ....

   The Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life has assumed that the development of a stable and balanced rural economy will require strong and vital local government. In this regard the Commission is examining the field of local government as it pertains to ALL administrative units serving a local population.

   The Commission assumes that strong local government will: command the attention and devotion of capable local leaders and so persuade them to accept responsible offices; utilize available financial resources from whatever source with maximum efficiency; provide for effective local servicing through sound administration; and merit the confidence and financial support of Provincial and Federal Governments.

4. Various possibilities exist which might assist in the fulfilling of the objectives outlined above.

(a) The suggestion has been advanced to the Commission that rural municipalities be reorganized and enlarged to give greater effectiveness to local government. In considering reorganization the suggestion has been made that the boundaries of enlarged municipal units should coincide with boundaries of larger school units. The school boards and municipal councils would continue to administer their respective affairs as at present, but would be dealing with the same people and geographic areas.

To what extent do you consider this proposal would meet with the approval of the following:

	Very great extent	Great extent	Somewhat	Not at all
Ratepayers				
Unit Board				
R.M. Councils				

Comment ....

(b) Another possibility for revision of the local government system is the establishment of a county system. This would imply establishment of a single geographic unit for school and municipal purposes, with the county boundary coinciding with the boundaries of larger school units. Under this arrangement various alternatives for administrative organization might exist each of which would permit a greater degree of integration in local government than is the case at present.

Which of the following five alternatives would appear to be most acceptable? (Check one answer only.)

(i) Election of councillors by divisions or sub-units to form the county council, which would be divided into committees, e.g., school, public works, and health. Appointment of a county secretary who would be secretary of all committees and secretary of the county council.

(ii) Election of a slate of officers as above. Instead of one county secretary the appointment of a county manager and a secretary for each of the education and public works committees. The county manager would be charged with the responsibility of administering all programs and policies as decided upon by the council, and would be assisted in his administration by the committee secretaries.

(iii) Election of a slate of councillors who would be elected at large rather than by divisions; the county council to be divided into committees as suggested in (i) above.

(iv) Election by division of a county council of five or seven representatives which would not be divided into committees, but would be the sole governing body for all purposes. This council would establish all policy and would delegate the responsibility for overall administration to the county manager and his assistants as noted in (ii) above.

(v) Election at large of a county council of five or seven representatives which would not be divided into committees, but would be the sole governing body for all purposes. This council would establish all policy and would delegate the responsibility for overall administration to the county manager and his assistants as noted in (ii) above.

Comment ....

....

Teacher Supply

1. Characteristics of teachers:

	Approx. Age	Sex	Married or Single	How long employed in your school	Years of teaching experience	Certificate			
						None	First Class	Superior	Higher
Present teacher									
Previous teacher									
Teacher previous to that									

2. (a) Is there a teacherage provided by your district? Yes .... No ....
   (b) Does the teacher board with a family in the district ....
   (c) Does the teacher live in a town or village ....

3. In your opinion, how much interest do the ratepayers show for the teachers welfare (housing, social life, general welfare).
   Very great interest ....
   Fair amount of interest ....
   Some interest ....
   No interest at all ....

4. How does the amount of interest which is shown for the teachers welfare compare with the amount of interest shown before your district became included in a larger unit.
   Just as much interest ....
   More interest ....
   Less interest ....

5. Where did your last teacher go when he or she left your district.
   To another rural school ....
   To a town or city school ....
   To a rural centralized school ....
   To another province ....
   Left the teaching profession ....
   Do not know ....

6. The Commission was advised through its community hearings that some parents are not satisfied that their children are getting as good a grounding in the "three R's" as children did some five or ten years ago.
   (a) To what extent is this criticism found in your district.
   To a very great extent ....
   To a fairly great extent ....
   Somewhat ....
   Not at all ....
   (b) If there is some dissatisfaction in your district with the quality of education which your pupils are getting which of the following factors do you think is the cause of it: (Number the following 1 to 5 in order of importance.)
   Poor personality of teachers ....
   Poor teacher training ....
   Unsatisfactory teaching methods ....
   Unsatisfactory curriculum because it depends too much on the child's ability to read ....
   Kind of material included in the curriculum ....

7. (a) To what extent do ratepayers in your district consider that the present curriculum is unsatisfactory due to an unfavourable balance between academic and vocational training.

	In elementary school	In high school
To a very great extent		
To a fairly great extent		
Somewhat		
Not at all		

(b) What criticisms are most generally expressed?

8. Home and School Associations have been organized in many districts in Saskatchewan. The purpose of these associations is to allow for greater communication and co-operation between parents and teachers regarding educational problems.

(a) Do you feel that there is a need for greater co-operation between parents, the school and the teacher regarding education and educational problems?

Yes No

Qualify

(b) To what extent do you feel that the local school board is a suitable medium to give the ratepayers and parents the opportunity to become acquainted with the educational program and co-operate with the teacher.

To a very great extent
To a fairly great extent
Somewhat
Not at all

(c) Is there a Home and School Association in your district?

Yes No

(d) If not, has there ever been an attempt to organize a Home and School Association?

Yes No

(e) To what extent do you feel that a Home and School Association organized for the purposes outlined above, would be supported in your district.

To a very great extent
To a fairly great extent
Somewhat
Not at all

Comment

APPENDIX VII

STATUTORY RESPONSIBILITIES OF SCHOOL BOARDS

Duties and Powers of District Boards

When a larger unit is established the board of trustees in any district included in a unit cease to have any powers or duties as conferred upon them by the School Act or School Attendance Act excepting the following:

1) To care for and manage the property of the school district subject to regulations of the unit board.

2) To co-operate with the teacher in the care and management and supervision of school property, and subject to unit regulations to effect, at unit cost, emergency repairs.

3) To notify the school superintendent of maintenance, repair and extension requirements of school buildings and furniture.

4) To require the unit board to supply, at the expense of the district, any equipment not normally provided by the unit.

5) To provide water and fuel for the school at unit expense.

6) To advise the unit board and superintendent as to desired improvement or extension of educational facilities.

7) To nominate by resolution one or more persons for employment as teacher for the school.

8) To hold annual and ratepayer meetings when required by law, and to hold ratepayer meetings for discussion of educational matters of concern to the district.

9) To elect delegates for representation at the sub-unit level.

As indicated, the district boards may wish to incur expenses in excess of the amount the unit normally intends to spend on the district. Provision is made for the district board to indicate its wishes to the unit board, and for the unit board to requisition the municipality for the levy.

Duties and Powers of the Unit Board

The duties and powers of the unit board are as follows:

1) To administer and exercise general supervision over all unit schools, and to provide adequate facilities and equipment for all schools.

2) To provide and appoint duly qualified teachers for schools in the unit.

3) To confer with the superintendent concerning educational problems and needs in the unit, and to consider any recommendations which the superintendent may advance.

4) To provide, if necessary, for attendance of students at schools other than the district school, and to contribute the cost of conveyance.

5) To provide high school instruction at convenient points throughout the unit.

6) To call an annual meeting of the ratepayers in each sub-unit.

7) To provide for an annual convention of trustees of the districts in the unit.

8) To appoint a teacher duly nominated by a school board, providing the nomination is forwarded within two weeks of receipt of notice by the board that a teacher is required, and that the nominee accepts.

In addition to these general administrative duties, there are a few other duties (which the board *may* undertake), the fulfillment of which affects the relationship of the unit board to the trustee and the ratepayers in general. These additional duties are as follows:

1) The unit board may incur expense to safeguard the health of the pupils.

2) To provide financial assistance for unit delegates to the provincial convention.

3) To provide a $10.00 honorarium for secretaries of local districts, and in case of a district with two or more rooms, an additional $5.00 per room. In no case shall the total exceed $30.00 per annum.

4) To prepare and adopt a salary schedule for the unit.

5) To employ special teachers to encourage and direct instruction in agriculture, manual arts and household economics, physical training, music, arts, dramatics.

6) The unit board may enter into an agreement with another unit board, a school district or a high school district for purposes of attaining high school, vocational and technical education for unit students at points either within or without the unit.

APPENDIX VIII

DOMINION-PROVINCIAL VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS' ASSISTANCE AGREEMENT

The Vocational Training Co-ordination Act of 1942,[1] authorized the Minister of Labour of the Government of Canada to "enter into an agreement with the government of any province to provide financial assistance to a percentage not in excess of the percentage contributed by the province for the development and carrying on . . . of vocational training on a level equivalent to secondary school level."[2] The Department of Education in Saskatchewan entered into the Vocational Schools' Assistance Agreement with the Federal Department of Labour in 1945 for a ten-year period. The agreement has not as yet been extended beyond 1955, although a committee has been working towards a renewal.[3]

Under the terms of the agreement the Federal Department of Labour pays the following amounts:

1) An annual grant of $10,000 for each fiscal year during the term of the agreement. This sum is not used for payment of school grants but for administration of vocational education.

2) An annual operational grant (procurable if matched by the province) based on a formula that takes into account the number of 15-19 year old persons in the province. This amount of the operational grant in 1945 was $163,900. It was made annually until the 1951 census was recorded. Because of the decline in population in Saskatchewan as shown by the 1951 census, however, the annual operational grant was reduced to $127,000.

3) A grant for capital expenditures. This grant is based on a formula that also takes account of the number of 15-19 year old persons in the province. On this basis, Saskatchewan received a total capital grant of $858,200. This grant also requires the province to match the federal grant equally so that at least $1,716,400 has been spent on capital expenditures for vocational purposes.[4] The agreement further stipulated that 25 per cent of the capital expenditure grant has to be spent on vocational equipment.

With respect to supervision, the agreement stipulates that the payment of grants by the Federal Government confers no power on federal government officials to supervise provincial institutions nor to supervise administration or personnel in provincial vocational training programs.

The agreement outlines, however, the following purposes for which the grant may be used:

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[1] Stats. of Canada, 1942-43, c. 34.

[2] Vocational Schools' Assistance Agreement, Department of Education.

[3] The agreement has been renewed on a yearly basis until 1957, and negotiations are proceeding on a long-term agreement.

[4] Actual grants for buildings and equipment under the Dominion-Provincial Vocational Schools' Assistance Agreement amounted to $2,647,979 which included $324,098 for the School of Agriculture and the School for the Deaf.

1) Purchase or erection of buildings; additions or alterations to existing buildings.

2) Non-expendable equipment or machinery.

3) Expendable items of equipment, hand tools, materials, vocational and mechanical books.

4) Salaries for technical and vocational administrators, teachers, and principals prorated on time spent on vocational and technical work.

5) Operating expenses in vocational schools—light, heat, power.

6) Maintenance and repair of plants.

7) Training of vocational teachers.

8) Preparation and maintenance of vocational correspondence courses.

9) Bursaries for students attending vocational schools.

The grant has been used in Saskatchewan for most of the purposes stipulated. But for two of the purposes only minimum amounts have been spent—the training of vocational teachers and bursaries for students. Courses have been offered for the training of vocational teachers at summer schools, and the grant has been used to some extent for this purpose.

In addition to specifying the purposes for which funds may be used, the following statutory controls on expenditures are defined:

1) When a building is to be erected for vocational purposes under the agreement, the plans must be sent to the federal director of training for his information only, since approval is made by the provincial officer.

2) When a building is to be erected or purchased for purposes of a composite school, the proportion of cost which may be charged to the Federal Government under the agreement is prorated on the basis of the area of instructional floor space used for vocational instruction.

3) Costs of space used for general administration and general purposes, such as gymnasium, washrooms, and so forth are prorated in the same proportion as are operating costs such as light, water, and so forth.

4) The Federal Government has the right to reject any project submitted for assistance but has not the authority to impose alterations or amendments to any project which has been approved by the province.

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APPENDIX IX

EXPENDITURE COMPONENTS OF VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, SASKATCHEWAN, 1953

Type of Expenditure	Rural		Village		Town		City		Larger School Unit		Secondary and Vocational	
	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%
Administration	39,474	3.0	20,103	2.3	35,485	2.1	146,963	3.1	644,670	3.0	105,863	4.5
Instruction	825,603	63.6	505,111	57.4	1,101,696	66.5	2,606,926	54.8	11,180,251	52.4	1,658,786	71.2
Plant operation and maintenance	253,606	19.5	139,549	15.9	314,553	19.0	882,089	18.6	3,243,962	15.2	337,146	14.5
Fees	22,949	1.8	2,086	.2	7,505	.5	—	—	48,918	.2	—	—
Conveyance	71,853	5.5	113,515	12.9	11,581	.7	3,703	.08	904,476	4.2	—	—
Auxiliary services	7,026	.5	2,565	.3	6,650	.4	28,299	.6	596,957	2.8	5,802	.2
Capital from operating receipts	50,252	3.9	69,150	7.8	108,263	6.5	706,676	14.9	3,909,248	18.3	177,319	7.7
Debt charges	28,166	2.2	27,855	3.2	70,957	4.3	378,744	8.0	805,279	3.9	43,283	1.9
Total	1,298,929	100.0	879,934	100.0	1,656,690	100.0	4,753,400	100.0	21,333,761	100.0	2,328,199	100.0

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APPENDIX X

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE OF TEACHERS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL, SASKATCHEWAN, 1949-50 TO 1953-54

Type of School	1949-50		1950-51		1951-52		1952-53		1953-54	
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent
One-room rural	349	72.0	266	60.9	186	49.1	125	38.7	100	36.2
Multiple-room rural	30	6.2	35	8.0	27	7.1	24	7.4	24	8.7
Village	75	15.4	91	20.8	95	25.1	98	30.3	88	31.9
Town	22	4.5	33	7.6	45	11.9	43	13.3	26	9.4
City	9	1.9	12	2.7	26	6.8	33	10.3	38	13.8
Total	485	100.0	437	100.0	379	100.0	323	100.0	276	100.0

SOURCE: Commission questionnaire returned by graduates of the 1948 summer course and the 1948-49 regular session of the Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges.

APPENDIX XI

FACILITIES AND COSTS OF TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

Present Training Program

At present, the preparation for elementary school teaching is a ten-month course at Teachers College. To qualify for a permanent certificate as of 1954, five university classes are required in addition. These may be taken by correspondence, by attendance at five summer sessions of the university, or by attendance at a full university year of study. In effect, the total course of training is a two-year course, although it may be spread over an extended period after teaching is undertaken.

Training is also offered at the College of Education of the University of Saskatchewan. The four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Education or the combined course of education and other subjects (five years) leading to more than one degree are generally taken as preparation for secondary school teaching. In addition, the University offers a one-year diploma course in education for graduates of other colleges as well as a two-year course for permanent or standard teachers' certificate.

Facilities for Teacher Training. Saskatchewan Teachers College accommodates a maximum of 750 students. The college at Moose Jaw can accommodate 350, the college at Saskatoon 400. The College of Education, with present staff and facilities, can accommodate approximately 200 students. In 1955 the College had 242 undergraduate and diploma students plus a few postgraduate students.

Costs of Teacher Training. Tuition fees cover only a small part of the cost of graduating a student either from Teachers College or the College of Education. With present costs and program, the cost to Teachers College of graduating a student is approximately $500 and the cost to the College of Education is approximately $2,000 for the four-year course.

For the student the total cost of attendance at Teachers College is about $800 to $850 including the cost of tuition, books and supplies, board and lodging, student fees, student teaching expenses, and incidentals.

At the College of Education the cost is approximately $880 to $900 for one school year. This figure includes tuition, student fees, books, board and lodging, transportation, and personal expenses.

The cost of taking the five university classes required for the permanent certificate varies depending on whether the classes are taken by correspondence, by attendance at five summer sessions, or by one year's residence at the University. The cost of the five classes by correspondence is approximately $155, the cost of five summer sessions approximately $600, and the cost of a school year approximately $800. Thus, the cost of completing requirements for a permanent certificate is about $1,000 if Teachers College and the five university correspondence courses are completed, $1,400 if Teachers College and five university summer sessions are completed, and $1,600 if Teachers College and one year of university are taken or the two-year university course is taken.

Proposed Two-Year Training Program

A compulsory two-year pre-service course of training has been proposed. In 1949 after a thorough study of the status of the teaching profession in Canada the Canadian Education Association recommended "that the minimum pre-service period of teacher education be two years beyond graduation from high school"[1] and "that the two-year course of professional training cover a total of approximately 60 weeks."[2] Students at Saskatchewan Teachers Colleges stated in a brief to the Commission that "a one-year program is inadequate both in length and content. An extended program would give us the opportunity not only to develop our concepts and philosophies of education but give us more time to mature socially and mentally in an enriched environment."

Although the present course of training in Saskatchewan amounts to a two-year course by the time the requirements for a permanent or standard certificate have been fulfilled, clearly a consecutive, balanced, pre-service course would provide superior training to a course in which only one year is planned and the university credits can be taken in any field spread over five summers after teaching has been undertaken.

Facilities. The institution of a two-year training program would present problems in facilities. If the same number of students were graduated each year, the doubling of the length of the course would require facilities to accommodate twice as many students at Teachers College. With present enrolment, there is room for approximately 100 additional students at Teachers College. But with present conditions and facilities the University cannot accommodate any larger number of students than is enrolled at present. Thus, if the number of graduates were to be maintained, increased facilities would be required.

Costs. The cost to the student of a two-year training program would probably be somewhat higher than the cost of the present course and the five university classes. The two-year course would cost $1,600-$1,700 if present fees were maintained, while present training costs about $900 to $1,450 depending on whether the additional classes are taken by correspondence or in residence. The cost of the two-year course might be reduced by shortening the school year from 10 months to 7 months. The main obstacle to financing the two-year course for most students is that the entire cost of the training would be required at the outset instead of the cost of the five university courses being spread out during years of employment. Particularly for that half of the students who at present borrow approximately $300 for a one-year course would this financing work a hardship. If a seven-month school year with a five-month summer holiday between the two years were instituted, however, some opportunity for earning funds for the second year of schooling might be provided.

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[1] *Canadian Education*, Vol. V, No. 1, December, 1949, p. 19.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

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APPENDIX XII

RETENTION OF STUDENTS BY SEX CLASSIFICATION IN VARIOUS TYPES OF HIGH SCHOOLS, SASKATCHEWAN, 1944-45 TO 1952-53

1. Schools Under The Secondary Education Act

Year of Enrolment in Grade IX	Number Enrolled in Grade IX		Retention in Grade X				Retention in Grade XI				Retention in Grade XII			
	Male	Female	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
			Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1944-45	896	1,052	806	90.0	988	93.9	800	89.3	1,031	98.0	683	76.2	790	75.1
1945-46	989	1,053	849	85.8	939	89.2	793	80.2	939	89.2	636	64.3	653	62.0
1946-47	909	1,101	770	84.7	972	88.3	720	79.2	912	82.8	600	66.0	655	59.5
1947-48	801	850	695	86.8	791	93.1	626	78.2	748	88.0	541	67.5	576	67.2
1948-49	797	894	698	85.6	811	90.7	687	86.2	798	89.3	585	73.4	586	65.5
1949-50	826	954	744	90.1	890	93.3	676	81.8	826	86.6	630	76.8	626	65.5
1950-51	820	1,033	717	87.4	946	91.6	716	87.3	863	83.5	552	67.3	623	60.3
1951-52	858	1,047	675	78.7	981	93.7	619	72.1	853	81.5	—	—	—	—
1952-53	855	1,043	755	88.3	948	90.9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1953-54	861	1,029	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

2. Schools Under The Vocational Education Act

1944-45	582	552	382	65.6	281	50.9	315	54.1	253	45.8	220	37.8	226	40.9
1945-46	489	383	331	67.7	316	82.5	536	109.6	511	133.4	193	39.5	255	66.6
1946-47	530	412	381	71.9	327	79.4	297	56.0	313	76.0	163	30.8	222	53.9
1947-48	520	393	361	69.4	317	80.7	354	68.1	289	73.5	199	38.3	211	53.7
1948-49	522	419	329	63.0	321	76.6	341	65.3	297	70.9	182	34.9	219	52.3
1949-50	468	396	316	67.5	314	79.3	301	64.3	249	62.9	163	34.8	167	42.2
1950-51	492	408	313	63.6	325	79.7	289	58.7	290	71.1	170	34.6	183	44.9
1951-52	439	378	297	67.7	266	70.4	285	64.9	244	64.6	—	—	—	—
1952-53	468	368	337	72.0	280	76.1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1953-54	412	371	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

3. Schools Under The School Act

1944-45	3,949	4,936	2,669	67.6	3,752	76.0	1,684	42.6	2,573	52.1	1,253	31.7	1,856	37.6
1945-46	3,928	4,851	2,665	67.8	3,638	75.0	1,692	43.1	2,547	52.5	1,197	30.5	1,692	34.9
1946-47	3,655	4,470	2,433	66.6	3,309	74.0	1,641	44.9	2,408	53.9	1,202	32.9	1,590	35.6
1947-48	3,595	4,477	2,364	65.8	3,253	72.7	1,574	43.8	2,252	50.3	1,155	32.1	1,576	35.2
1948-49	3,702	4,337	2,431	65.7	3,274	75.5	1,602	43.3	2,329	53.7	1,095	29.6	1,494	34.4
1949-50	3,756	4,297	2,527	67.3	3,275	76.4	1,603	42.7	2,302	53.7	1,062	28.3	1,438	33.5
1950-51	3,664	4,346	2,344	64.0	3,247	74.7	1,476	40.3	2,224	51.2	1,194	32.6	1,462	33.6
1951-52	3,805	4,406	2,342	61.6	3,131	71.1	1,633	42.7	2,271	51.5	—	—	—	—
1952-53	3,600	4,166	2,451	68.1	3,240	77.8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1953-54	3,794	4,253	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

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APPENDIX XIII

QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN SURVEY OF DEMAND FOR PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

Questionnaire Sent to Associations

Professional Association

1. Total members of the profession in Saskatchewan
Total rural location Total city location

2. Estimated **present** unmet demand for members of your profession in Saskatchewan. (Classify by specialty if possible.)

3. Estimate of demand during next five years for members of your profession in Saskatchewan.

	Replacements	New Positions
Increase		
Decrease		
About same		

4. Approximate distribution of members of your profession by type of employment in Saskatchewan.

	Per Cent
Provincial Government	
Federal Government	
Private practice	
Commercial agencies	
Other	

5. What is your judgment of the present level of enrolment in the University of Saskatchewan relative to actual and potential demand for members of your profession in Saskatchewan?

6. What is your judgment of **the adequacy of existing training facilities** in the University of Saskatchewan relative to actual and potential demand for members of your profession in Saskatchewan? What are the major gaps in training facilities?

7. What difficulties have you experienced in retaining members of your profession in Saskatchewan?

8. Other comments

Questionnaire Sent to Government Departments

Government Department

1. Total staff (professional)
2. Total University graduates on staff
3. Types of present employment requiring University graduation in your department in order of importance (specify percentage if possible):
4. What is your estimate of the demand for University graduates in your department in the next five years (assuming present trends continue)?

	Replacements	New Positions
Increase		
Stable		
Decrease		

5. Is the present supply of University graduates adequate for your requirements?
Yes No
6. Please indicate the specific professional needs of your department for which University graduates are not available.
7. Please indicate training facilities required for positions in your department but not available in Saskatchewan? How extensive is this need?
8. What difficulties, if any, have you experienced in securing University graduates when they are available?
9. What specific improvements can you suggest for more effectively meeting the training needs of professional personnel required by the work of your department?

Questionnaire Sent to University Colleges

College

1.

Year	Total Enrolment	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year	Per Cent Graduating	Post-graduate	*Estimate of Full Capacity
1950-51								
1951-52								
1952-53								
1953-54								

* Assuming optimum use of facilities and personnel.

2.

Year	Job placement of graduates		Sask. employment opportunities exceeded (+) did not exceed (−) supply
	Per Cent in Saskatchewan	Per Cent out of Province	
1950-51			
1951-52			
1952-53			
1953-54			

3. Approximate job placement for graduates of your College during the past five years.

	Per Cent
Provincial Government	
Federal Government	
Postgraduate	
Private practice	
Commercial agencies	
Other	

4. What is your judgment of the adequacy of:

(a) Present level of enrolment in your college relative to existing facilities?

(b) **Present** job opportunities in the profession **in Saskatchewan** relative to the current level of enrolment? (Specify by specialty if possible.)

(c) Present job opportunities in the profession **in Canada** relative to the current level of enrolment? (Specify by specialty if possible.)

(d) **Future** job opportunities (next five years) in the profession **in Saskatchewan** relative to the current level of enrolment? (Assuming present trends continue.)

(e) **Future** job opportunities (next five years) in the profession **in Canada** relative to the current level of enrolment? (Assuming present trends continue.)

5. What major limitations, if any, can you suggest which prevent the College from more effectively meeting the training needs of the profession **in Saskatchewan?**

6. What comments, if any, would you care to make on the relationship between adequacy of training facilities and research facilities in your College? To what extent is there strong interdependence?

7. In view of the increasing proportion of rural young men and women who must seek non-farm employment what do you consider to be the responsibility of your College in the preparation of students for professional employment (a) within Saskatchewan (b) within Canada? What difficulties, if any, have you experienced in retaining your graduates in Saskatchewan?

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